

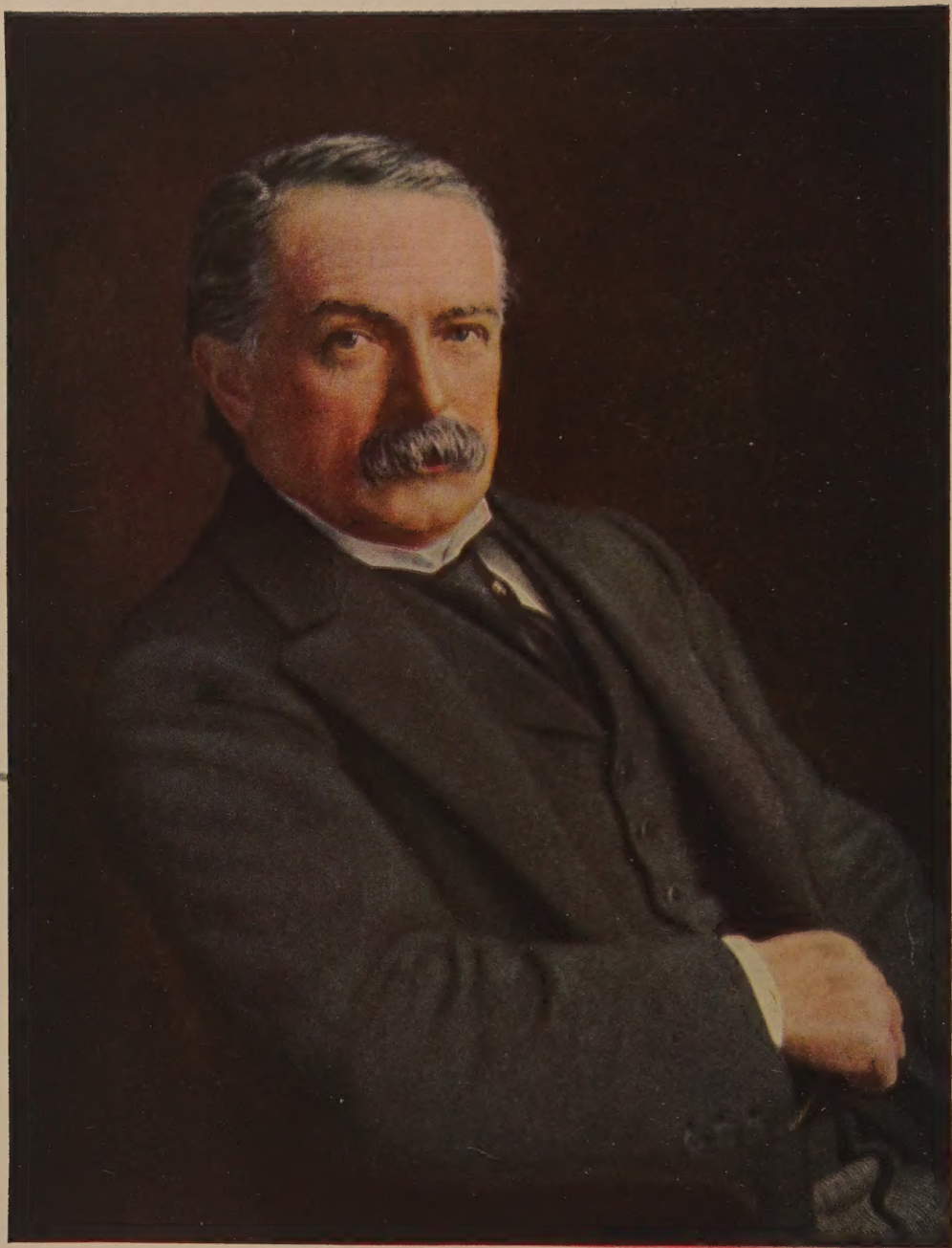
The World's Greatest War

Volume II

THE EVENTS OF 1917 AND
SUMMARY

THE EVENTS OF 1918

THE ARMISTICE AND THE
PEACE TREATIES



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THE RIGHT HON. DAVID LLOYD GEORGE
Minister for Munitions, 1915-16. Prime Minister from December, 1916

The Book of History

The World's Greatest War

FROM THE OUTBREAK OF THE WAR
TO THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES

WITH MORE THAN 1,000 ILLUSTRATIONS

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Volume XVII

THE EVENTS OF 1917 AND SUMMARY
THE EVENTS OF 1918
THE ARMISTICE AND THE PEACE TREATIES

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The Houses of Parliament in London

CHAPTER XL

The British People at War

GREAT BRITAIN STRIVES WITH UNFALTERING DETERMINATION TO WIN THE WAR

THE Great War was primarily a struggle of nations, rather than of armies. It was fought, not only on the battle-front, but also, and perhaps more decisively, on the home front. Consequently, the true story of the war is to be found as much in the sphere of national war efforts as in the sphere of military operations.

In waging war, the British people have almost always started badly. The Seven Years War, the Napoleonic War, the Crimean War, and the Boer War were all long-drawn-out struggles, marred in the beginning, so far as Great Britain was concerned, by bungling and mismanagement, and crowned with success only when the nation was thoroughly aroused, and had learned its lesson in the school of experience. "Muddling through," in fact, has become the traditional *modus operandi* of the British people at war.

BRITISH ARMS OFTEN UNSUCCESSFUL AT FIRST.

The British have never "gone in" for short, sharp military successes, such as that which the French won over the Prussians in 1806, or as that which the Prussians won over the French in 1870. They have preferred usually to drag out the drama through all its five acts, leaving the dénouement to the very last; and there is no doubt that, during the most depressing

days of 1914 and 1915, many an Englishman found much solace and comfort in the fact that, whereas British arms had never prospered at first in war, they had almost invariably prospered in the end.

For the comparative ill-success of the British in waging war at the outset, there are various reasons. One of these lies perhaps in the national temperament. The British are a practical, rather than a theoretical, people. They do not as a rule take long views, but prefer rather to feel their way, to take each step only as they become convinced of the necessity for it. Consequently, when war has come, it has usually found them only half-prepared; and the task of readjusting themselves to the new conditions imposed by the outbreak of war has often been a long and painful process.

DEMOCRACY NOT ALWAYS EFFICIENT IN WAR.

Another reason, no doubt, is to be found in the British type of government. Democracy is notoriously less efficient, up to a certain point, in waging war than autocracy; and the British type of democracy, with its dependence on the principle of cabinet government, is peculiarly ill-adapted to the conduct of war. A ship of state which goes into action under the direction of a navigating board

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of twenty-three members, any or all of whom are liable to be thrown overboard at a moment's notice, does not enter battle under the most favorable auspices.

A WAVE OF PACIFISM SWEEPS OVER GREAT BRITAIN.

In 1914, moreover, there were special reasons why Great Britain was ill-prepared to go to war. During the opening years of the twentieth century there had swept over the British Isles a wave of pacifist feeling. Many people were persuaded by the arguments of writers like Mr. Norman Angell, the author of *The Great Illusion*, who taught that war under modern conditions was so ruinous that it was unthinkable; and many were misled by the apparent solidarity of the Labor *Internationale* into thinking that a general European war was actually impossible.

A group of the Unionist party, led by Lord Roberts and Lord Charles Beresford, had, it is true, preached the danger of the "German menace", and had urged the country to gird itself for the coming struggle; but their warnings had fallen on deaf ears. It so happened that during the years preceding the Great War there was in power in England a Liberal government which, pacific and anti-militarist in tendency, was committed to a policy of *rapprochement* with Germany.

In 1912 Lord Haldane, a member of the British cabinet who had described Germany as his "spiritual home", went to Berlin carrying an olive branch, in the hope apparently of conciliating the "blond beast", and though it is now clear that his mission was at best only partially successful, the British government was so encouraged by the friendly reception which Lord Haldane was given in some quarters in Berlin that it continued its attempt to bring about better relations between the two countries. "The anticipation that good would result from a free exchange of views," said Mr. Asquith, the Prime Minister, in the House of Commons on February 14, 1912, "has been realized. It has dispelled the suspicion that either government contemplates

aggressive designs against the other." Dwelling as they did in this fool's paradise, it is small wonder if the Asquith government and its anti-militarist supporters were unready when the world war broke out.

Few foresaw the extent of British participation.

Even among the advocates of preparedness there were few who foresaw the extent to which Great Britain would be compelled to go in participating in a continental struggle. The doctrine enunciated in the eighteenth century by the elder Pitt when he said, "The fleet is our standing army," still held sway in England, and it was expected that Great Britain's contribution to a general European war would be primarily naval. So far as war on land was concerned, it was not anticipated that Great Britain would have to take part in it except on the theory of limited liability. Plans for the dispatch of an expeditionary force to the continent in the event of war had indeed been agreed upon, but this force was not apparently expected to exceed a few divisions, and the machinery for the sudden creation of a larger force simply did not exist.

The British people had steadfastly set their faces against the principle of compulsory military service; the Territorial forces were under obligation to serve only in home defense; and the only troops immediately available for overseas service were the units of the comparatively small regular army, many of which were required for garrison duty elsewhere. Even had the machinery existed for calling up a large army, no preparations of an adequate nature had been made for officering, equipping, or provisioning such a force. A *levée en masse* in England in 1914 would have produced an army like the rabble Falstaff led to Coventry.

THE LACK OF AN EFFICIENT GENERAL STAFF.

In yet one other respect Great Britain was ill-organized for waging war. She had no machinery, such as was afforded in Germany by the Great German General Staff, whereby policy

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might be co-ordinated with military and naval strategy. She had no central control for waging war. The modern General Staff system contemplates the co-ordination by one person, the Chief of the General Staff, of advice tendered by a host of subordinate experts, covering every possible phase of the situation; but under the British system in 1914, there was no real head of the

UNCERTAINTY AS TO A DECLARATION OF WAR.

Up to the last minute it seemed doubtful whether Great Britain would throw herself into the war or not. War broke out between the continental powers on July 31; but as late as August 3, when the British parliament was called together, the British government had not yet decided to throw



SIR SAM HUGHES AND LORD ROTHERMERE

General Sir Sam Hughes is photographed with Brigadier-General Seely and Lord Rothermere. General John Seely was appointed to command a brigade of Canadian Cavalry in February 1915. At the end of 1917 the Air Board of Great Britain was expanded into an Air Ministry and Lord Rothermere became special Air Minister.

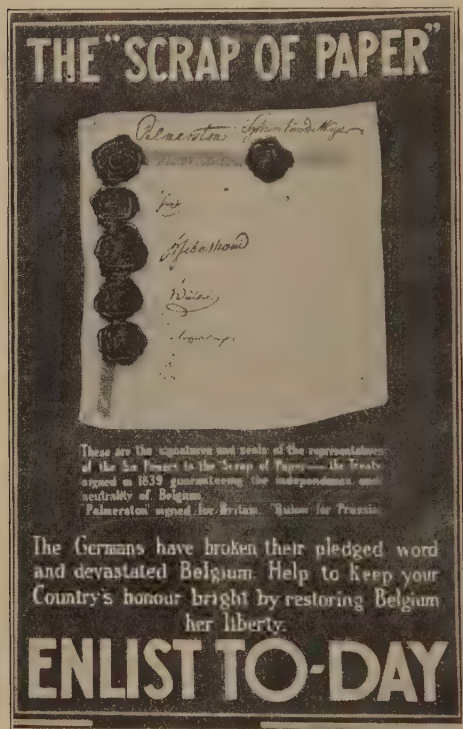
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General Staff, save the unwieldy civilian cabinet, and the real direction of the war rested in the hands of a number of departments, the War Office, the Admiralty, the Foreign Office, and even the India Office; and if all these departments worked in harmony it was more by good luck than by good management. Too often, especially during the earliest stages of the war, decisions were taken by the British government on the strength of half-baked and half-digested advice, owing to the absence of any organization for the proper consideration of plans by experts from all points of view.

in its lot with France. It had even steadfastly declined to enter into any definite engagement with France. Only when the German forces had actually violated the neutrality of Belgium, of which Great Britain was one of the guarantors, did the British cabinet take the plunge and declare war on Germany; and even then there was an element in the Liberal and Labor parties which opposed an entry into the war. Lord Morley and Mr. John Burns resigned from the cabinet; and Mr. Ramsay Macdonald and his friends openly deplored the government's action.

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The overwhelming majority of the people, however, stood solidly behind the cabinet. If it had been merely a question of Serbia's sovereign rights, if it had been even a question of the invasion by Germany of the eastern frontier of France, it is doubtful if British public opinion would have been in favor of participation in the war;



AN ENGLISH RECRUITING POSTER

This facsimile of the treaty guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgium was used on a recruiting poster in England, and was quite effective.

but when Germany, with a cynical disregard of her plighted word, invaded Belgium, the soul of the British nation was immediately roused to action. Not only was the occupation of Belgium by an unfriendly power likely to prove, in the language of Napoleon, "a pistol aimed at the heart of England," but it became a point of honor with Great Britain to make good her guarantee of the neutrality of Belgian soil.

A PARTY TRUCE IS IMMEDIATELY DECLARED.

The way in which the British people rose to the situation had in it some-

thing magnificent. A political truce was promptly declared between the two great historic parties; and even the Irish Nationalists and the Ulstermen, who had been a few weeks before on the brink of civil war, buried the hatchet and vied with each other in their loyalty to the common cause. It was symptomatic of the truce to party feeling that Lord Kitchener, the Empire's foremost soldier, who was actually on the way to Egypt, was recalled, and made Secretary of State for War—a position that had been temporarily occupied by the Prime Minister, Mr. Asquith.

A SURVEY OF THE DOMESTIC SITUATION IN 1914.

During 1914 there appeared no rifts within the lute. It had been feared that on the outbreak of war there would be a serious collapse of credit and a financial panic; but the measures taken by Mr. Lloyd George, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in conjunction with the leading British bankers, successfully averted the danger of disaster and Great Britain embarked on the war in an astonishingly good financial position. The temper of the nation remained firm and resolute. Lord Kitchener, far-sighted enough to discern that the war would be a long one—he was credited with having prophesied for it a duration of three years—, immediately scouted the theory of Great Britain's limited liability, and laid plans for a whole-hearted participation in the struggle. Not only did he accept the offers of the Territorial units to serve abroad, but he issued a call for a new army of a million men. His recruiting appeal was splendidly answered. Especially during the dark days of the retreat from Mons and the anxious weeks of the First Battle of Ypres, the volunteers poured into the recruiting booths faster than the recruiting organization could deal with them.

Nothing perhaps was more significant of the temper of the people than the unreserved way in which they placed their trust in the government. During the autumn of 1914 hardly a breath of criticism was heard.



BRITISH VOLUNTEERS WHO HAVE JUST SIGNED UP

Voluntary enlistment in Britain during the early weeks of the war was so large that equipment in uniforms and weapons fell far short of the demand. As time went on, however, better system prevailed. The men shown in the picture standing before the barracks have passed their medical examination and been accepted for service.



THE SAME MEN TEN MINUTES LATER

These are the same men ten minutes later (a record) in uniform, furnished with their kit and regimental number, and ready to entrain. From the barracks where they stayed only a few minutes, they were sent to one of the instruction camps dotted all over England. After training they were sent to some part of the British front in France. Notice the extra pair of boots standing before every man's kit-bag.

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Parliament virtually abdicated its powers in favor of the cabinet. It began by authorizing the expenditure by the government of £100,000,000, to be spent for any war purpose without specification or estimate; and this vote was followed by other and larger votes. It passed a Defense of the Realm Act, the first of a series of acts which conferred on the executive government the widest powers of legislation by Order-in-Council, and which even authorized, for the first time in more than two centuries, the sentencing to death of a civilian without trial by jury. "The Houses may be said to have agreed to a sort of *Ultimatum senatus consultum; videant consules*."

SOMEWHAT LATER THE PARTY TRUCE IS BROKEN.

Early in 1915, however, the harmony that had prevailed began to break down. The Asquith government still received general support, and there was at first no open attempt to force its retirement. But evidence of uneasiness and dissatisfaction began to appear both inside and outside of parliament. The continuance of Lord Haldane in the cabinet came in for criticism from those who had disapproved of his pre-war policy and who suspected him, though without reason, of being pro-German. The indiscretions of Mr. Winston Churchill at the Admiralty, especially his ill-starred attempt to relieve Antwerp (which prolonging the resistance of the city, endangered the Belgian army), offered another target of attack.

The general policy of the government, moreover, had been, despite the vast powers placed in its hands, unstable and vacillating. In the matter of liquor control, it embarked on an ill-considered venture which ended in an inglorious surrender to the "trade". In its treatment of alien enemies it was forced to reverse, because of popular pressure, the policy of lenience which it had first adopted. And in the all-important matter of munitions, it confused and irritated the country by ministerial announcements displaying alternate complacency and panic.

LORD KITCHENER AND THE QUESTION OF MUNITIONS.

The question of munitions, indeed, more perhaps than any other, was the rock on which the government came to grief. Lord Kitchener, the Secretary of State for War, who had charge of the supply of munitions for the army, had devoted his energies mainly to the problem of recruiting and had devoted apparently less attention to the matter of supplies. The probability is that he attempted to supervise too much himself, and was not able to give to all aspects of his task the attention they required. When it became clear that, in spite of ministerial assurances to the contrary, the British army in France was being hampered and hindered by a serious shortage of artillery shells, and that among the shells sent forward there was too high a proportion of shrapnel and too small a proportion of high explosive, the country naturally became aroused.

Lord Northcliffe, the proprietor of *The Times* and the *Daily Mail*, opened in his papers an attack on the Asquith government in general and Lord Kitchener in particular. On May 14, *The Times* printed a dispatch from its correspondent at British General Headquarters in France which revealed the existence of a disagreement between Lord Kitchener and Sir John French, the British commander-in-chief in the field, over the question of munitions. The following day, Lord Fisher, the father of the modern British navy, resigned from the post of First Sea Lord at the Admiralty, as the result of differences with his official chief, Mr. Churchill. The effect of these combined events was seriously to shake the stability of the administration; and when, in the third week in May, the Unionist leaders in parliament privately served notice on Mr. Asquith that they could no longer refrain from criticism unless big changes were made, Mr. Asquith was forced to accept, as a solution for his difficulties, the idea of a national or coalition government, in which all parties should be represented.

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A COALITION CABINET IS FORMED IN MAY, 1915.

On May 25, consequently, a radical reorganization of the cabinet was effected, with the inclusion in it of eight Unionists and one Labor member. Mr. Asquith remained Prime Minister; but Lord Haldane was dropped, and Mr. Churchill was relegated to the sinecure post of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, while his place at the Admiralty was taken by Mr. A. J. Balfour. Lord Kitchener remained at the War Office, but he was relieved from the oversight of munitions by the creation of a new Ministry of Munitions, which was placed in charge of Mr. Lloyd George.

Mr. Lloyd George had been before the war the *bête noire* of the more conservative element in the country; but his skillful solution of the financial difficulties at the beginning of the war, and his tactful handling of some labor disputes which had broken out in the winter of 1914-1915, had met with general approval; it was significant of his altered position in the public eye that he should have been entrusted with the task which, more perhaps than any other, was the object of public concern.

THE RECORD OF THE COALITION CABINET.

The Coalition Cabinet promptly gave evidence of a more energetic policy. Under Mr. Lloyd George the production of munitions was speeded up so successfully, and on so stupendous a scale, that never again was the shortage of supplies a cause for serious anxiety with the British people. In February, 1916, a new Ministry of Blockade was created, with the object of tightening the cordon drawn around the Central Empires; and in half a dozen other ways, the new ministry showed itself more effective than the old.

But its efficiency still left something to be desired. The record of the Coalition Cabinet, which remained in power for a year and a half, has been well described by an English political commentator on the war, who wrote;

"The Coalition Government proved

in almost every sphere of war direction and war administration that it was stronger than its predecessor, but not strong enough, that it acted more swiftly, but yet acted too late, that its measures were better adapted to the needs of the time than the measures of the first year of the war, but yet were almost invariably half measures."



THE CHIEF COMMONER

David Lloyd George during the war was in turn Chancellor of the Exchequer, Minister of Munitions and Prime Minister.

MR. ASQUITH LOSES THE CONFIDENCE OF PARLIAMENT.

Very early criticism of the coalition government began to make itself felt. It was complained that it was merely an alliance of front-bench politicians, rather than a real national government. In particular, many people were distrustful of what was called "the Old Gang", namely the Asquithian Liberals who still dominated the cabinet. Mr. Asquith himself, was accused of being deficient in leadership, and a phrase which he had used, "Wait and see," was held up as typifying his war policy. The obvious failure of the Dardanelles expedition, the

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comparative ill-success of British diplomacy in the Balkans, the apparent stalemate on the Western Front, all contributed to discredit Mr. Asquith's direction of the war.

There were, moreover, domestic questions which embarrassed the government. One of these was the question of recruiting. By the summer of 1915, the flow of recruits had begun somewhat to ebb. There were many, and among them some of the cabinet

Derby, the Director of Recruiting; and this appeal was moderately successful, but during its course promises were made which rendered the adoption of conscription in the case of unmarried men, obligatory. This led to the introduction of the first compulsory service measure in January, 1916, and to a further measure in April; but these bills were so mild, despite the fact that serious opposition developed to them in the cabinet, that dissatis-



AFTER THE FLEETING FURLOUGH

This picture shows British veterans awaiting the Flanders trench special at Victoria. Many of the privates who had never left England before or even been to London, came to take the land and sea journey with its at least three changes very phlegmatically. All railroad and boat service was of course under government control.

ministers, who believed that the only satisfactory solution of the recruiting problem was to be found in conscription, or compulsory military service. Others, and these included at least a majority of the cabinet, hesitated to admit the necessity for conscription until it had been shown that the voluntary system had definitely failed.

SOME OF THE DIFFICULTIES OVER RECRUITING.

The internal conflict in the cabinet over this question produced naturally indecisive and compromise measures. In July, 1915, a national registration was held. In October, 1915, a final recruiting appeal was made by Lord

faction rose to a great height and a more sweeping measure had to be brought in, early in May, 1916.

This Act definitely placed the question of British man-power on a compulsory service basis, and it went far toward solving the problem of reinforcements for the front. But its passage brought little prestige to the government. On the one hand, it earned for the government the opposition of the anti-conscriptionist element in the Liberal and Labor parties and it was a curious fact that there grew up a more active opposition in Parliament to the Coalition ministry than to the purely Liberal ministry

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which had preceded it. On the other hand, the measure earned for the government little commendation from the conscriptionists, who attributed the passage of the measure, not to leadership on the part of the government, but to subservience on their part to public opinion. Many of them, indeed, looked on the measure as a victory over the government, which they had forced to conform to their views. The

munition workers of the Clyde; and even where strikes did not break out, production was disappointing. It proved difficult to persuade the workingman to give up his trade union regulations with regard to such matters as hours, wages, and the competition of unskilled and female labor. "The life of Britain," said Mr. Lloyd George at the end of February, 1915, "is being imperiled for the matter of a



BUSY SCENE IN A MUNITION WORKSHOP

Women of the Allied and enemy countries had the privilege of making munitions before their sisters in Great Britain, who only had their desire granted in the summer of 1915. While government schemes were under consideration a volunteer movement was set on foot at the Vickers factories at Erith. The movement once started gained very rapidly.

truth was, of course, that the Coalition, containing as it did many shades of political opinion, had to proceed in all contentious matters by way of compromise and concession; and this fact alone was sufficient to account for the appearance of vacillation and indecision in the policy it followed.

SOME OF THE DIFFICULTIES OVER LABOR.

Another question which caused the government much worry was the Labor difficulty. Early in 1915 unrest began to appear among certain elements of the working-class. Strikes kept breaking out, especially among the Welsh miners and the shipping and

farthing an hour." Another cause of the trouble was heavy drinking among some of the workers; and it was with the object of setting an example that on March 30, the King banished alcoholic liquor from the royal household.

The trouble may have been due also in part, to political causes. The extreme wing of the Labor party in Great Britain, represented by the Independent Labor party and the Union of Democratic Control, had become openly anti-war, and it was obvious that the influence of this element, combined perhaps with the machinations of German agents, had something to do

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with the Labor unrest. But whatever the source of the trouble, there was no doubt that the attitude of an element in the working classes was a cause of much embarrassment to the government; and there were many people, otherwise friendly to Labor, who felt that the government handled the situation too timidly. It seemed an anomaly that a deserter at the battle-front should have to suffer the extreme

war, as the result of the introduction into parliament by the Asquith government of a bill granting Home Rule for Ireland, Ireland had been on the verge of civil war. The Protestant people of the North of Ireland, under the leadership of Sir Edward Carson, had organized an army of "Ulster Volunteers", had imported arms from Germany, and had announced their determination to resist by force of arms



THE GRAVE OF MAJOR REDMOND IN A CONVENT GARDEN

Major William Redmond, M.P., brother of Mr. John Redmond, the Irish Nationalist leader, was mortally wounded April 26, 1917, during the successful attack on Messines Ridge. His body was taken to the little village of Loecre behind the lines and there buried in the private garden of the convent. Photograph British Official

penalty when deserters on the home-front got off scot-free.

THE OUTBREAK OF THE IRISH REBELLION.

The most disastrous failure of the Coalition Government in domestic affairs was its handling of the Irish question. Ireland has always been a thorn in the side of England at times of crisis. It was so at the time of the Puritan Revolution, at the time of the Revolution of 1688 and during the Napoleonic Wars. But at no time was it more so than during the Great War of 1914-1918. In the spring of 1914, just before the outbreak of the

the application of Home Rule to Ireland; and the Roman Catholic South of Ireland had replied with the formation of a volunteer army of its own.

The declaration of war had had a sobering effect on both parties. The question of Home Rule for Ireland, together with other contentious measures, was shelved for the time being; and both the Ulstermen, under Sir Edward Carson, and the Irish Nationalists, under Mr. John Redmond, sank their differences, and united to support the government in its war policy against Germany. Mr. Redmond actually

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DUBLIN POST OFFICE

The portico of the gutted Post Office—a scene of devastation, dust and debris. Photograph taken from the lofty Nelson Pillar.

went on the stump and delivered recruiting speeches; and if the people of Ireland had followed his lead full-heartedly, it is possible that they might have converted, not only the people of Great Britain, but even the people of Ulster, to Home Rule.

It is significant that the way in which the female suffrage organizations of Great Britain suspended their agitation, and threw themselves heart and soul into the war, resulted in the concession of their demands in 1918; and it is reasonable to suppose that if the Irish had followed their example, they, too, would have established an irresistible claim to consideration. But unfortunately the hatred of England was so deep-rooted in Irish breasts, the distrust of England was so ineradicable in Irish minds, that the people of Ireland were not able to rise to the height of their opportunities.

THE SINN FEIN ORGANIZATION GROWS STRONGER.

Early in 1915 it became clear that Mr. Redmond had failed to carry with

him a large body of Irish opinion. There had been founded in Ireland about ten years before the outbreak of the war, an Irish republican organization named Sinn Fein, which had as its ideal the complete independence of Ireland, and which was virtually a revival of the Fenian organization of the middle of the nineteenth century. The leaders of this movement were chiefly dreamers, doctrinaires, and fanatics. They now showed themselves willing to sacrifice on the altar of Irish nationalism all those ideals for which Great Britain and her allies were fighting. They discouraged recruiting; they formed a secret revolutionary organization; they organized an army of Irish Volunteers, not to fight against the Germans, but to embarrass the British; and they did not hesitate, as subsequent events showed, to ally themselves with the Germans, to accept German aid, and to champion the German cause. Anti-recruiting meetings were held; posters discouraging recruiting were openly displayed;



IMPERIAL HOTEL, DUBLIN

Ruin of the Imperial Hotel, Dublin, as seen from the top of the Nelson Pillar. Not a room in the building remained intact.

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sedition literature was published broadcast, and the police in the execution of their right of search were met by armed resistance.

The Irish Secretary in the Coalition Government was Mr. Augustine Birrell, a genial man of letters, a humanitarian Liberal, a believer in the best side of human nature. An enemy of the policy of repression, he showed himself loth to use drastic measures in dealing with the Sinn Fein agitation. After the rebellion which broke out, he admitted to having held "an untrue estimate of the Sinn Fein movement, not of its character, or of the probable numbers of persons engaged in it, nor of the localities where it was most to be found, nor of its frequent disloyalties; but of the possibility of disturbances, of the mode of fighting which has been pursued, and of the desperate folly displayed by the leaders and their dupes." But whatever the motives which actuated the British government, the result of their policy was disastrous. On April 24, 1916, the Sinn Feiners issued a proclamation "from the Provisional Government of the Irish Republic to the People of Ireland", which called on the Irish people to rise; and the same day armed rebellion broke out in Dublin and in other places.

SIR ROGER CASEMENT LANDS IN IRELAND.

For some time German arms, ammunition, and money had been finding their way into Ireland. Only four days before the rebellion, for example, a German auxiliary, in the guise of a neutral merchant ship, acting in conjunction with a German submarine, had attempted to land arms and ammunition on the Irish coast; and Sir Roger Casement, a former British official who had been in Germany, actually succeeded in landing from the submarine—only to be captured a few days later, and to suffer ultimately the penalty of high treason. Armed with German rifles and cartridges, and garbed in a sort of uniform, the Sinn Feiners attempted on April 24 a *coup d'état* in Dublin. They occupied St. Stephen's Green, seized the Post Office,

took possession of the ammunition magazine in Phoenix Park, captured the Four Courts and other important buildings, barricaded the streets in the neighborhood of Dublin Castle, cut the telegraph and telephone wires, and attacked the 3rd Royal Irish Regiment when the latter attempted to relieve the Castle. In Charles Street a British cavalry regiment was surrounded and besieged for over three days, until it was relieved.

The outbreak seems to have taken the authorities by surprise. There does not seem to have been in the vicinity of Dublin a sufficient number of troops to cope with the rebellion. For several days the rebels were in virtual control of Dublin, and all the authorities could do was to hold the Castle and the Custom House. But gradually troops began to pour in; a cordon was drawn around the district in which the rebels were concentrated; field guns were brought up to bombard the vantage-points which the rebels had seized; and on April 29 the rebels surrendered unconditionally.

THE LONG ROLL OF CASUALTIES DURING THE UPRISING.

In the street-fighting which occurred during the rebellion, there were many casualties and some "unfortunate incidents" on both sides. The military casualties were 521, of whom 124 were killed; and the civilian casualties, so far as known, were 794, of whom 180 were killed. Many buildings were destroyed, and millions of pounds worth of damage was done. Mr. John Healy, the editor of the *Irish Times*, who was an eye-witness of the rebellion, declared that "there must be no mistake about the uprising. It was brutal, bloody, savage business. It was marked by many cases of shocking and callous cruelty. Innocent civilians were butchered in cold blood. Unarmed policemen and soldiers were shot down. As the result of promiscuous looting and incendiarism one of the finest public buildings in Ireland, and the most important commercial centre of Dublin, are in ashes. The full toll of death will never be known." To the rank and file of the rebels clemency was extended,

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which was interpreted by some of them as a sign of weakness on the part of the government; but the leaders of the rebellion were duly tried and executed, and thus the rebellion ended, as it was bound to end, in a tragic fiasco.

Under normal circumstances, the whole British Cabinet would have been compelled to bear the blame for the failure of their Irish policy. But the European situation was in 1916 so critical that the resignation of the government would have been a calamity; and Mr. Birrell, whom a Royal Commission found mainly responsible for "the situation that was allowed to arise and the outbreak that occurred," was made the scapegoat for his colleagues, and forced to resign. But there can be little doubt that the Irish tragedy seriously undermined the prestige of the government, and was a factor in bringing about its fall.

THE FINAL DOWNFALL OF THE COALITION CABINET.

As 1916 wore on, evidences of dissatisfaction with the Coalition Cabinet increased. Criticism became louder and more vigorous with regard to a great number of phases of the government's policy. The comparative failure of British diplomacy in the Balkans; the lack of unity in the work of the Air Forces; the supineness of the Admiralty, where Mr. Balfour was considered out of place, and especially its failure to scotch the growing submarine menace; the slackness of the British blockade of Germany; the failure to grapple with the serious decline of the British merchant shipping; the inertia of the government with regard to food production and food control; the mishandling of the question of the distribution of manpower; the slowness in winding up the German banks in England—these, and other, matters came in for the frankest strictures. As in 1915, the Northcliffe press led in the chorus of denunciation. At the beginning of December, 1916, the *Sunday Times* described the government as "muddlers," and the *Daily Mail* characterized them as "The Limpets—a National

Danger." Some of the members of the Cabinet were held up to ridicule as "idle septuagenarians;" and the general attitude of the Cabinet was lampooned as one of inaction and indecision.

THE FAILURE OF THE CABINET TO ACT PROMPTLY.

The actual crisis, when it came, however, occurred not over any of the questions which have been enumerated, but over the question of the reorganization of the cabinet system. It had early been recognized that "a body of 23 men of very unequal ability, tired by their departmental labors, and meeting every day for a couple of hours, was, indeed, an impossible machinery for making war." Such a system was well described as "government by debating society." In November, 1915, a standing War Committee of the Cabinet had been created, composed of the prime minister and five other ministers; but this committee, though a step in the right direction, was still open to grave objections. Its members were still heads of departments, engrossed in the details of departmental administration; its decisions were subject to ratification by the Cabinet as a whole; and owing to its practice of calling in technical and official advisers, as well as ministers from other departments, it became hardly less cumbrous a body than the Cabinet itself.

MR. ASQUITH IS COMPELLED TO RESIGN.

In the summer of 1916 Lord Kitchen-er, when on his way to Russia, had met his death when the battleship on which he was traveling had been sunk by an enemy mine or submarine; and Lloyd George had succeeded him as Secretary for War. It was not long before Lloyd George, with his keen sense for organization, became dissatisfied with the existing machinery for prosecuting the war. At the beginning of December he proposed a plan for the reduction in size of the War Committee, the exclusion from it of ministers immersed in departmental business, and the investment of it with full authority to deal with

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all questions of war and strategy, without reference to the whole cabinet.

This plan might have been accepted had it not been that it was definitely stipulated that the prime minister should not be a member of the committee. This stipulation Mr. Asquith naturally refused to approve: and a few days later he charged that there had been a "well-organized, care-

upon applied to Mr. Lloyd George, "the man of the hour"; and on December 10 the latter announced the formation of a new "Win-the-War" government.

THE LLOYD GEORGE MINISTRY IS FORMED

The new Cabinet differed profoundly from the old. Not only was a clean sweep made of the old-fashioned school



THE BISHOP OF LONDON "RECRUITING"

The Church in Britain as in every country vehemently espoused the cause of war as the cause of right. This picture of the Bishop of London was taken during one of the great recruiting drives frequent in England before the compulsory service act of May 1916. The British as a nation were set against conscription, and it required almost two years' casualty lists to prove the unsatisfactoriness of the voluntary system. Underwood & Underwood.

fully engineered conspiracy" against himself and some other members of the cabinet. However this may have been, when he refused to accept Mr. Lloyd George's plan the latter resigned, and thus precipitated a crisis which immediately brought about the resignation of Mr. Asquith and the whole of the Cabinet. The King first invited Mr. Bonar Law, the leader of the Unionist party, to form an administration: but Mr. Bonar Law, who appears to have worked in harmony with Mr. Lloyd George during the crisis, found himself unable to accomplish the task. The King there-

of politicians, such as Mr. Asquith, Lord Grey, and Lord Lansdowne, but there was a liberal infusion of new blood in the Cabinet. A number of self-made business men, such as Lord Rhondda and Sir Albert Stanley, were included; Labor was represented by Mr. Arthur Henderson, Mr. John Hodge, and Mr. George N. Barnes; education was placed in the hands of a distinguished British scholar, Mr. H. A. L. Fisher; shipping was assigned to Sir Joseph Maclay, a great ship-owner; and agriculture was placed under Mr. R. E. Prothero, a well-known authority on food production. To a



COAL-WOMEN ON A DAILY ROUND IN GLASGOW

It was not only the light work that the women of Great Britain took over in order to free men for service at the front. "Doing their bit" required grit and endurance.

large extent the Cabinet was one of experts and business men.

Another new development was the creation of an "Inner Cabinet", or War Cabinet. This War Cabinet was given complete charge of the general direction of the war, without the necessity of reporting its decisions to the whole Cabinet. It was composed of five members, Mr. Lloyd George, Lord Curzon, Lord Milner, Mr. Arthur Henderson, and Mr. Bonar Law; and all of these ministers, with the exception of Mr. Bonar Law, who was Chancellor of the Exchequer, were relieved of all departmental duties. It was even decided that the prime minister, as the head of the War Cabinet, should be relieved from the burden of attendance in the House of Commons; and the leadership of the Commons devolved on Mr. Bonar Law.

THE EFFECT OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE WAR CABINET.

This arrangement marked a distinct step in advance in the organization of the government for war; it provided the most effective instrument which Great Britain had as yet had for the



HELPMATES AT HOME

This picture shows a form of service that was quite heavy for women to perform, namely wheeling coke to fill trucks at Coventry gasworks.

unified direction of the war, while it left the heads of departments free to devote their whole energies to their administrative duties. It paved the way, moreover, for one of the most interesting developments of the British Constitution in the last century or more, the Imperial War Cabinet, a development which offers at least the possibility of the solution of the intricate problem of the government of the British Empire. On the other hand, the dictatorial powers enjoyed by the War Cabinet threw into relief the decline which had taken place in the authority of Parliament.

Once the necessity was removed of keeping the ministry within the bounds of an executive committee, the number of departments in the government began steadily to increase. A Ministry of Labor and a Ministry of Pensions, an Air Board and a Ministry of Blockade, the office of Shipping Controller and that of Food Controller, a Ministry of National Service and a Ministry of Reconstruction—all these were created in rapid succession, until the number of administrative depart-

ments was almost double that of the pre-war period. At one time it was estimated that the number of new departments, boards, commissions, and committees exceeded the total of four hundred.

NEW AND DIFFICULT PROBLEMS ARE CREATED.

This multiplication of departments and agencies of government produced an inevitable overlapping and duplication of business; and it soon became clear that it created as many problems as it solved. Lord Curzon admitted in the House of Lords that most of the time of the War Cabinet was taken up with the adjustment of internal disputes between the ministers. The jurisdiction of the Food Controller clashed with that of the President of the Board of Agriculture; the new Ministry of Labor trenched upon the spheres both of the Ministry of Munitions and of the Board of Trade, and the Director of the new department of National Service, which proved a gigantic and expensive fiasco, resigned because he had been left nothing to do.

But, despite these and other obvious defects, the Lloyd George government proved itself to be a distinct improvement on either of the administrations that had preceded it. It showed leadership where its predecessors had had to be pushed; its policy was thoroughgoing and decisive where the policy of its predecessors had been weak and vacillating; it was on time where they had been "too late." The masterful energy, the cheery optimism, the indomitable courage of the new Prime Minister infected the rest of the nation. The years 1917 and 1918 were, for the people of Great Britain, by all odds the most trying and severe of the war. Not only did the casualty lists spread their tragic tidings among practically every family in the country, but, as a result of the German submarine warfare, the food supply of Great Britain ran dangerously low. The war struck home at the everyday life of Englishmen as it had never done before. Yet, under the inspiration of "the little Welshman" who by sheer force of character had risen from the humblest

to the highest position in the land, the people of Great Britain met the crisis with a serenity and a resolution that had in it something of the heroic.

THE FOOD PROBLEM WAS THE MOST CRITICAL.

The most critical problem the country had to face under the Lloyd George government was probably that of maintaining the food supply. In peace time Great Britain had been a heavy importer of food-stuffs; and during the first two years of war, owing to the way in which the army had drained off the able-bodied men from the land, Great Britain became even more dependent than ever on foreign imports. Already, however, in 1916 the difficulty of keeping up the flow of imports had made itself felt, partly owing to the diversion of a vast amount of merchant shipping to purely military and naval uses, and partly owing to the growing success of the German submarine campaign.

It so happened that just after the entrance into office of the Lloyd George government the Germans embarked on an unrestricted submarine offensive. Hitherto they had used, out of deference to the United States and other neutral powers, some discretion in their use of the submarine weapon; but now they threw caution to the winds, and adopted a policy of sinking everything on the high seas at sight. The result was that the carrying trade of the world became threatened with extinction. In January, 1917, the sinkings of British, Allied, and neutral ships totaled 333,000 tons, in February 470,000, in March 600,000, in April 788,000, in May 540,000, in June 758,000, in July 463,000, and in August 591,000—a grand total of 4,561,000 tons in eight months. As against these figures there stood only a total of 1,500,000 tons of new shipping launched in the same period—so that Great Britain and her Allies had to face in these few months a net shrinkage of over 3,000,000 tons of shipping. And this loss represented not only a serious reduction of carrying space, but it meant also the complete destruction of vast cargoes of food-stuffs,

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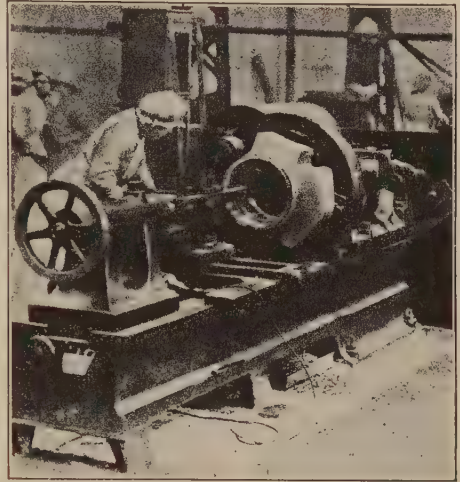
coal, munitions of war, and other commodities.

MEASURES TAKEN TO RELIEVE THE FOOD SHORTAGE.

Sir Edward Carson, who was First Lord of the Admiralty during the first half of 1917, has confessed that during these terrible months there were times when those at the Admiralty could see no ray of light in the black outlook. The Germans became jubilant, and many of them regarded the war as already won. Yet the British government turned to face the new peril undaunted, and to organize the country to meet it. The measures adopted by the government were of five kinds. First, there were the purely naval measures taken with a view to crushing the submarine menace; second, there were the measures taken to increase the output of new shipping, and to speed up the repair of damaged shipping; third, there was a rigorous restriction of imports, so that all cargo space could be available for the importation of essentials; fourth, a system of food control, and also liquor control, was set up which aimed at limiting the consumption of food-stuffs in the country; and fifth, a policy of food production was inaugurated, which had as its object the raising in Great Britain itself of the maximum of food-stuffs of which the country was capable.

The anti-submarine warfare was one of the most thrilling and romantic phases of the Great War. But the story of the hunting of the submarines by destroyers, motor-launches, sea-planes, blimps, and mystery ships, the story of the mine-sweepers and of the mine barrages, the story of the numberless duels between lonely merchant vessels and gigantic submarine-cruisers—these things fall outside the scope of this chapter. What does deserve mention here, however, is the work of the sailors of the merchant marine. These heroic men, without even the protection of the King's uniform, faced daily danger and death as fearlessly and gallantly as any bluejacket or soldier; and if, in the end, the submarine menace was held, if not mastered, the credit was due no less to the

sailors of the merchant marine than to those of the Royal Navy. If the fore-castle hands of the British merchantmen had in any way failed in their duty, as those of some of the neutral countries failed, the results would have been disastrous.



BORING INSIDE BREECH PIECES OF HEAVY GUNS

When the Ministry of Munitions was formed in England women clamored to work in the factories, and government schemes on a large scale were set on foot for their employment.

THE DIFFICULTIES OF THE SHIPPING CONTROLLER.

The work of the Shipping Controller was not without its difficulties. The lack of trained mechanics, strikes in the shipyards, scarcity of materials, troubles over the attempt to standardize ships, delays in regard to the erection of new shipyards—all these things retarded the hoped-for increase in the output of shipping. But gradually these difficulties were overcome; and by the end of 1917, while the losses of shipping had begun to show a decided downward curve, the curve of ship-building was upward. The two curves had not yet by any means met; but in every shipyard in Great Britain and America men were rivaling one another to see who could rivet the greatest number of bolts in one day, and there was every prospect that sooner or later the Allies would be able to build as many ships as the German mines and torpedoes could sink. In that day the war would be won.

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The restriction of imports was a comparatively simple matter. Orders-in-council were issued prohibiting the importation of foreign fruit, tea, coffee, cocoa, rum, wines, linen, books, and generally all things that did not come under the head of necessities. The importation of other things, such as paper and canned salmon, was restricted by 25 or 50 per cent. On the whole, it was estimated that the new restrictions would effect a saving in cargo space of nearly 1,000,000 tons, and would thus go a long way to counterbalance the loss of shipping which had already taken place.

FINAL RESORT TO RATIONING OF FOOD.

Food economy, like recruiting, was at first put on a voluntary basis. Lord Devonport, who occupied the office of Food Controller until the summer of 1917, hesitated, on account of practical difficulties, to adopt a system of compulsory rationing; and he merely put people on their honor to ration themselves voluntarily according to a fixed schedule. This voluntary rationing undoubtedly resulted in a considerable decrease in the consumption of foodstuffs, for most people adhered to it religiously; but it offered a loophole for the glutton and the food-hoarder, just as voluntary recruiting had offered a loophole for the "slacker". A strong demand consequently developed for a compulsory system; and Lord Rhondda, who succeeded Lord Devonport as Food Controller, acceded to this demand, and in December, 1917, inaugurated a system of compulsory rationing by means of food cards. Sugar was at first the only commodity rationed; but the system worked with unexpected smoothness, and in the beginning of 1918 other foodstuffs were rationed as well, notably meat.

Parallel with the food economy campaign was the policy of liquor control. The output of the breweries and distilleries was rigorously restricted; and by this means an annual saving of hundreds of thousands of tons of foodstuffs was effected. No attempt was made to ration beer and spirits, except on the part of the dealers,

and the prices of all kinds of spirituous beverages rose to unheard-of heights, until in the summer of 1918 prices were fixed: but temperance advocates believed that the restrictions imposed, by limiting drunkenness, contributed greatly to the effectiveness of the British war effort.

EFFORTS TO STIMULATE PRODUCTION OF FOOD.

Lastly, every effort was made to stimulate food production in Great Britain itself. A "back to the land" propaganda was launched; local agricultural committees were given authority to place land under the plough, with the result that tennis-courts, golf-links, and ancient estates which had not been under cultivation for a century were transformed into potato patches and wheat fields; generous minimum prices for foodstuffs were guaranteed by the government; and a revival of agriculture took place such as Great Britain had not seen since the first half of the eighteenth century. In every village and town in England old men, women, and boys—of every grade of society—had their allotments of cultivated land, which they worked in their hours after business.

Taken all in all, "the race with death," as a German newspaper denominated the anti-submarine struggle, imposed on the British people unprecedented privations and sacrifices. It involved an experiment in state socialism such as few people ever thought would be made on British soil. Yet the British nation accepted the situation with a certain phlegmatic, but heroic equanimity; and in the end the combined result of the measures adopted was that the Germans were cheated of the victory which they had thought was all but within their grasp.

THE SMALL EFFECT OF AIR-RAIDS.

Just as the submarine menace was met and held, so the menace of the German air-raiders was in the end scotched. The first air-raids on England were made by Zeppelin dirigibles, which crossed the North Sea under cover of dark and cloudy nights, and



TWO GIRLS CARRY ON A FARM

On a farm in Devonshire all the men employed were in the army, and the farmer was ill. His two daughters, one eighteen the other fourteen, carried on all the work of the farm, milking, ploughing and taking care of the calves and sheep and driving the animals to market.

Picture British Official.



A GERMAN PICTURE OF ENGLISH GUNS

Though this picture was apparently made in France it was widely circulated in Germany as being made in England. It pretended to show that the English were so much alarmed by the threat of German invasion that they were retaining heavy guns in England and scattering them all through the country-side near the sea, instead of sending them to France.

Feature Photo Service.



BACK TO THE LAND

This picture shows the woman prize-winner for harrowing and driving in Cornwall, where the heavy soil requires a steady hand.

dropped bombs promiscuously over the east of England. These raids wrought occasionally no small damage; but on the whole they proved a failure, not because of the effectiveness of the British defenses, but on account of atmospheric conditions and other practical or technical difficulties. The Germans then had resort to aeroplane raids. These were made at first on moonlit nights, and they proved more difficult to deal with than the Zeppelin raids. Then, growing bolder, the Germans ventured on daylight raids; and the first daylight raid, which took place in Kent in May, 1917, did great havoc.

Gradually, however, the British anti-aircraft defenses were improved. London, which was the chief object of attack, was provided with a plentiful supply of anti-aircraft artillery; an elaborate system of air-raid warnings was evolved, which gave time for precautionary measures; and the growing ascendancy of the British air forces made it increasingly dangerous for the Germans to attack England. Very little of the damage done, moreover, was of military importance; and



RELEASING MEN FOR MILITARY SERVICE

A woman acting as a bricklayer's assistant in an English village. Others cleaned and painted ships, sawed lumber, even carried coal.

during the last stages of the war any German air-raids on England were undertaken, apparently, more with the hope of pinning down a part of the British air-forces to the defense of England than with the hope of obtaining any decisive result through terror or demolition. Throughout the war, indeed, the German air-raids on England, far from weakening the resolution of the British people, rather steeled it, and thus contributed in the long run to the downfall of Germany.

THE GREAT WAR EFFORT OF 1917-1918.

During 1917 and 1918 everyone recognized that the crisis of the war was approaching; and Great Britain strained every nerve to make her weight felt as strongly as possible. To cite statistics with regard to the magnitude of the British war effort during these years would merely bewilder without convincing; a clearer idea may be gained from a few simple but significant facts. By the beginning of 1918 the military age in Great Britain had been raised to fifty years and lowered to eighteen; the medical standard for recruits had been lowered



A PARTY OF THE W.A.A.C. AT TOURS

This group of the W.A.A.C. was detailed to do clerical work in the American Central Record office at Tours. The workers are shown on a little island made into a play-ground for war-workers of all nationalities which was in charge of a young American Y.W.C.A. worker, in the centre of the picture.



WOMEN'S ARMY AUXILIARY CORPS IN BARRACKS

In 1917 after the heavy losses in the Somme campaign the problem of man-power was serious in Great Britain. A Women's Army Auxiliary Corps was formed as an adjunct of the army, and similar corps for the navy and air forces. They relieved men for duty at the front who had been held behind the lines. They were under strict military authority while on duty and did almost everything a man could do.

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repeatedly, and all exemptions revised; the principle was adopted that all private considerations, of whatever sort, should give way before the needs of the state, and every man who was not physically unfit was forced either into the army and navy, or into some industry, such as munitions, shipbuilding, or agriculture, which was essential to the prosecution of the war. By 1918, indeed, there was hardly an otiose man in the British Isles, outside of Ireland; and the total enlistments in the army had soared to a figure around six millions.

THE WORK OF WOMEN IN WAR AND INDUSTRY.

An even more striking illustration of war effort was to be found in the work of the women. From the beginning the women of Great Britain had enlisted in large numbers as hospital workers and as makers of soldiers' comforts; and when the munitions crisis arose, great numbers of them entered the munition factories. Some factories indeed came to be staffed almost wholly by women. Then, when the problem of man-power came to the fore in 1917, women flocked into service in a score of different spheres, where they had never been seen before. A Women's Army Auxiliary Corps was formed as an adjunct of the army; and these "Waacs", as they were familiarly known, more than justified their existence by relieving for duty at the front men who heretofore had been held on the lines of communication. Similar corps were formed also in connection with the navy and the air forces; the former were known as "Wrens" (Women's Royal Naval Service), and the latter as "Wrafs" (Women's Royal Air Force). Large numbers of "land girls" volunteered for work on the farms; women became bank clerks, taxi drivers, bus conductors, and even railway hands. In every branch of life women stepped up and took the places of the men who had gone to the front; and the remarkable feature of this social revolution was that it was the result of voluntary effort.

Still another illustration of the war effort of the British people was seen

in the sphere of finance. Although by 1918 the cost of the war had risen in Great Britain to over £6,000,000 a day, and the national debt had grown to over six times its pre-war size, Great Britain was able to meet a considerable part of the cost of the war out of an enormously increased tax revenue. The tax on quite moderate incomes rose to 7s. 6d. in the pound; and on large incomes it rose to more than 10s. This taxation, however, did not prevent the country from subscribing liberally to the government loans; and of the war loans and victory loans issued nearly three-fourths of the total was taken up in the country itself.

THE "WILL-TO-VICTORY" IN THE GOVERNMENT.

Government action in 1917 and 1918 afforded many evidences of the Lloyd George Cabinet's determination to prosecute the war to a successful issue. Every effort was made to keep the Cabinet at the highest point of efficiency. Mention has already been made of the substitution in June, 1917, of Lord Rhondda for Lord Devonport as Food Controller. Lord Rhondda, one of the ablest business men in Great Britain, undertook the duties of Food Controller against the advice of his physicians, and he died when his work was accomplished, as true a martyr to the cause as any soldier that died at the front. In July, 1917, Sir Edward Carson was superseded as First Lord of the Admiralty by Sir Eric Geddes, one of the "supermen" thrown up by the war, a civilian who had risen to the rank of Major-General in the army and Vice-Admiral in the navy. In August, 1917, Mr. Arthur Henderson, the representative of Labor in the War Cabinet, was forced to resign on account of his equivocal attitude toward the International Labor Conference at Stockholm, where it was apparently proposed that British and German Socialists should sit side by side and discuss the terms of peace; and his place in the War Cabinet was taken by Mr. George N. Barnes, who had opposed sending British delegates to the Conference.

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THE DEPARTMENT OF PROPAGANDA ORGANIZED.

A singular illustration of the efficiency of the British government was seen in the creation, in February, 1918, of a department of Propaganda. This department was placed in charge of Lord Beaverbrook, a Canadian financier who had had a meteoric career in British politics, and who had played a leading part in the formation of the Lloyd George Cabinet; and the oversight of propaganda in enemy countries was given to Lord Northcliffe, whose great abilities had previously been employed in a special mission to the United States. The new department was the result of a realization that the issue of the war was likely to be decided as much on the home-front as on the battlefield, and that the struggle had now entered the realm of psychology.

The work of the department was twofold. On the one hand, it devoted itself to strengthening the "will-to-victory" of the British people and their allies, through the newspapers, through books and pamphlets, and even through the cinema; and on the other hand, it strove to break down the will of the Germans and their allies by getting the facts about the war effort of the Allies and the United States into the Central Empires, if only through literature scattered over enemy countries by British airmen. That the propaganda carried out was successful in weakening the German resistance was proved, during the war, by captured German army orders, and has been amply corroborated, since the armistice, by the narratives which the German generals and admirals have poured from the press.

THE IMPERIAL WAR CABINET IS ORGANIZED.

As the war entered, moreover, on its final stages, the British machinery for the direction of the war grew steadily better. The creation of the War Cabinet paved the way for the formation in March, 1917, of the Imperial War Cabinet, in which sat, not only the members of the British War Cabinet, but also the Prime

Ministers of the British overseas Dominions. This new body, which was well described as a "Cabinet of Governments," and which possessed not merely advisory but executive powers, provided what had hitherto been lacking, a unified control for the war effort of the British Empire. Later, in November, 1917, largely as a result of the insistence of Mr. Lloyd George, a Supreme War Council was set up at Paris, which gave the same sort of unity to the war effort of all the Allies that the Imperial War Cabinet had given to the war effort of the British Empire; and the culmination of the process was reached in March, 1918, when Marshal Foch was made Generalissimo of the Allied armies on the Western Front.

CRITICISM OF THE GOVERNMENT SOMETIMES HEARD.

The Lloyd George government, of course, did not escape criticism. At times, indeed, criticism of both the policy and conduct of the administration was hardly less vigorous than it had been under the Asquithian régime. But it was criticism of a different kind. Little complaint was heard of vacillation or dilatoriness in government action; most of the critics of the government were people who believed, on various grounds, that the policy of the government was too thoroughgoing. From the beginning a part of the Labor party and the extreme Radical wing of the Liberal party had been opposed to the war; and under the Lloyd George régime this pacifist element grew bolder and more active. They attacked nearly every measure whereby the government sought to strengthen the war effort of Great Britain; and they continually advocated "a peace by negotiation" rather than a decision on the battlefield. As the war dragged on, a certain war-weariness, which began to appear among some people, gave to this party an accession of strength; and they received support from an unexpected quarter when, in November, 1917, no less a person than Lord Lansdowne wrote a letter to *The Times* urging that peace negotiations with the Germans should

be opened. But among the rank and file of the British people these pacifists were regarded as disloyal, and their attacks probably strengthened the government rather than weakened it.

DISAGREEMENT IN ARMY AND NAVAL CIRCLES.

An attack from a different angle was that conducted by certain groups connected with the War Office and the Admiralty. In this campaign a number of questions were at issue. The "Westerners"—those who believed that the war was to be decided on the Western Front—objected to the various "side-shows" which the government was conducting at Saloniki, in Palestine, and in Mesopotamia; and an element in British military circles condemned what they regarded as the undue centralization of authority in the hands of an Allied Generalissimo. The old cry was heard that the politicians were bedeviling the conduct of the war. Unfortunately, in the controversies that arose, personalities seemed to play a considerable part. The friends of Lord Jellicoe were angry at his dismissal from the post of First Sea Lord; the friends of General Sir W. R. Robertson were angry at his having been forced out of the position of Chief of the General Staff over the question of the unity of the Allied command; and when, on May 6, 1918, General Sir Frederick Maurice, the Director of Military Operations at the War Office, wrote a letter to *The Times* accusing Mr. Lloyd George of having misled the House of Commons with false information, the personal feeling between the professional soldiers and the politicians became all too apparent. The attack resulted only in a parliamentary victory for Mr. Lloyd George; General Maurice was disciplined by the Army Council; and as soon as the tide turned in France in the summer of 1918, and the advantages of the unity of command became apparent, the attack died down.

THE DAY OF VICTORY FINALLY ARRIVES.

The victory of the Allies in the autumn of 1918—the collapse of Bulgaria, the break-up of Austria-Hungary, the defeat of Germany—was almost a personal triumph for Mr. Lloyd George. It proved the soundness of his views with regard to the prosecution of the war; and it justified the shining optimism with which he inspired the people of Great Britain even in the darkest days of the struggle. His presence at the head of affairs in Great Britain during the critical years of 1917 and 1918 was worth many army corps to the Allies; and it was not surprising that, as the war closed, he became a popular idol among the majority of his countrymen. The general elections held at the end of 1918 resulted in the tribute of an overwhelming victory for the Lloyd George government—a tribute rendered more remarkable since a new Act (the Representation of the People Act, 1918) had enormously widened the electorate, inaugurating not only manhood suffrage, but female suffrage as well.

But great as was the contribution made by Mr. Lloyd George and his colleagues in the government to the final victory of the Allied arms, the chief credit for the war effort of Great Britain rests with the average British citizen. Encompassed about with dangers of which he had never dreamt, faced with famine, subject to restrictions against which at other times his liberty-loving soul would have revolted, enduring the daily torture of the casualty lists, and often mourning the fact that the light of his life had gone out, the average Britisher nevertheless played his part with stolid and unflinching constancy—not doubting that the clouds would break. Never, not even in the Napoleonic Wars, did the prosaic heroism of the British people shine more brightly or clearly than in the Great War of 1914-1918.

W. S. WALLACE.



French infantry awaiting attack

CHAPTER XLI

M. Poilu, As I Knew Him

AN ENGLISHMAN'S COMPARISON OF THE FRENCH AND THE BRITISH SOLDIER

BY BASIL CLARKE

M. POILU, the French soldier? Which way shall one turn to find the type? Take the bearded old man you see in the roadway there, sitting with his hammer beside a heap of stones. He is bent and rheumatic; his eyes are failing, and, despite the spectacles he wears behind his stone-breaker's goggles, he can hardly see the stones he is so busily breaking. His lunch is by his side—a loaf, an apple and half a bottle of mixed wine and water. He will work there from sunrise till sundown, and then, with bent back and slow step, he will hobble to some neighboring cottable to sup and sleep. A quaint, pathetic old figure! But he is a French soldier, none the less. His weather-worn blue coat was served out to him by a regimental commissariat goodness knows how many years ago. His corduroy trousers are also uniform; his cap is the uniform peak cap of the French Army.

BOTH OF THESE OLD MEN SOLDIERS OF FRANCE.

Soon, perhaps, you may see this old Poilu's corporal come along the road to take a look at the work done, and to pass censure if the amount is too little. The corporal is, perhaps, just as old as the stonebreaker himself. He may wear the stripe of the "caporal" be-

cause his sight is a little better or because he can walk along the roads at a whole mile an hour instead of only at half a mile. Both are equally soldiers of France, and they work for soldier's pay—which is the luxurious sum of three or five sous (three cents to five cents) a day.

THE FRENCH ARMY AND THE FRENCH NATION SYNONYMOUS.

They may never go near the front. They may be now, as you watch them, a good fifty miles away from the nearest trench. But over the roads they make or mend pass the troops and the stores, the horses and the guns, that go to the winning of France's battles. And just as those guns are necessary so also are the stones for the roads that take the guns, and the stonebreakers that break the stones for the roads that take the guns. It is like the "House that Jack Built" over again; and in France, when the house is to be built is a war to be won, every man necessary for building that house is caught up in that immense and all-embracing labor net, the Army of the French Republic. He may make you a boot or pull you out a tooth, bake you a loaf or bury you, but he becomes a soldier. The French Army just now is the French nation.

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To take the French equivalent, therefore, of the British soldier you must take the French fighting soldier. This is not so all-comprehensive a term as the term French soldier, who is everyone. Gunners, sappers, horse and foot—there are numerous types enough of the French "fighting soldier" and the wider age limit that exists in the French Army yields

THE PASSION AND THE FIERCENESS OF THE FRENCH.

First, then, I think the French soldier is the fiercest of all the soldiers fighting in this war. His war spirit burns him. It is a passion. I shall never forget the face and the eyes of the infantry sergeant who one night, early in the war, came across me in a French troop train (to which one of his men



SOLDIERS INCAPABLE OF ACTIVE SERVICE MENDING ROADS

These old men, decrepit, and perhaps half blind are, nevertheless, soldiers of France under military discipline. Every man on the rolls who could render service in any capacity was called to the colors. Though entirely incapable of service in the trenches he might be set to making munitions, farming, building roads, or any one of a dozen other occupations all of which helped to carry on the war.

greater contrasts in individual types than are to be found in even our own Army. To reduce the French fighting soldiers to a type, therefore, to take, that is, all the types of French soldier, and in the manner of those horrid little sums we used to do at school, to take their G. C. M. or H. C. F. and say this is the French fighting soldier type—would be rather speculative mathematics. I don't think one could do it. What I will try to do instead is to set down certain qualities which I think belong especially to the French soldier, at least to a greater degree than to any others.

had invited me), and, as he stood with a lantern peering into my face, said, "Swear to me that you are not a Boche." Even though I was not a Boche the look in that man's eyes quite scared me then and still remains in my memory as the most fearful examination I have ever undergone. Had he not been satisfied and had my papers not been in order as well as my general appearance, I could have hoped for no mercy, even no respite from a man who could look like that.

I saw that look several times again in French soldiers. Once when walking along a country road near Ypres I



THE YOUNG RECRUIT AMONG THE VETERANS

The word "poilu" once meant bristly or hairy, and was used rather contemptuously, but in spite of objections the French people began to use it affectionately as applied to their unshaven and unshorn soldiers undergoing the hardships of the trenches. It was then only a step to apply it to all private soldiers.

stumbled upon a masked French battery. It was a bearded lieutenant, this time, who darted out and stood in front of me, revolver in hand. "What is monsieur doing?" I can hear to this day the icy coldness and suspicion of those words of his; can feel still the cold glint of his black eyes as they

looked me up and down and through and through. He thought me a spy and to have his battery located by the Germans was an appalling risk. He marched me in front of him to the commandant of the battery, and all the way there I could feel those eyes at my back. The commandant, fortunate-

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ly, was more satisfied with me, and showed me over his battery, but the lieutenant stood by, and though he did his best to be friendly, I could never forget his first greeting. I remember thinking that had I been a Boche, I would rather have been taken by the British, or by any other race than by the French. My end might not have been any the less swift, but the manner of it could never have been so cold and full of passionate enmity.

THEIR UNRELENTING DETERMINATION SHOWN IN BATTLE.

The French are like this in all their war, but especially in a charge or an attack. They are not as athletic as our men; they are not, perhaps, when it comes to the number and quickness of thrusts, so deadly with the bayonet. And yet the Germans fear the French bayonets, I think, more than they fear ours. There is a greater deadliness of purpose, a more unrelenting hate and determination to kill and naught but kill. They are terrible fighters, but even more terrible "haters." I saw a spy once being taken into custody by the French and noted the look on his guards' faces. I heard the shots that finished his spying and his life the following morning. And a cold chill went along my spine, and I, somehow, longed to be back in England.

This fierceness is an outcome of their intensity of nature and resoluteness of purpose. I don't think any Army shows resolution more than the French Army. Our boys are resolved enough, but it is the fashion to hide this rather than to show it. A singer who dares to sing to our soldiers at the front about fighting for King and country, dying "with face to the foe," and the like, is generally shouted off the platform before very long. Our soldiers cannot bear it. They will fight as bravely as any soldier for these things, but they don't like it talked about.

BRITISH AND FRENCH TEMPERAMENT SHOWN IN SONGS.

In their songs, in fact, they prefer to pretend that they are afraid. The most popular type of song out at the front is the song that displays its singers as "having the wind up"—

which is soldier slang for being in a downright funk. The French soldier would no more think of singing a song like this than he would of flying. Marching along the roads, over camp fires, and in billets and trains he will sing blithely about glorious France, fighting for France, death before the foe and the like. None of these phrases has become trite and jejune for him; he feels and thinks that way. Yet he is at heart less combative a type than the average British soldier, especially the North-country soldier. He fights less readily, but with less consideration for his enemy when he does begin. No false ideas of "sport" moderate his warfare.

EXACTNESS AND PRECISION MARK THE FRENCH GUNNER.

The French soldier has a wonderful gift for exactness, precision, and essential detail. This is partly what goes to make him the best gunner in the world. Some of our sergeants mistake precision and synchronization and clock-work movement for efficiency. To watch a French gun crew working, say, a field-gun, you would at first deny even the possibility of their being so efficient as some of the spick-and-span British gun crews you had seen. They seem to go in a "go-as-you-please" fashion. That fellow slogs open the gun-breech and takes a look round the horizon perhaps as he does it; this fellow rams in the shell and makes a joke about "les sales Boches"; this fellow's tunic is half off because he has not fastened it properly—there seems no comparison at first sight between that crew and its work and a British crew. But note the number of shells that French gun "gets away" to the minute; note the number of direct hits, and it will amaze you; the truth being that the French gunner concentrates on the one or two little points that make for quick fire and accurate aim and lets all else go by the board. His skill for detail has shown him what these one or two points are, and he has paid attention to these things till no mortal man could do them better than he. The German gunnery officers have slaved for years to get their gun

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crews as quick as the French, but they are to this day not within many shots per minute as fast.

The French soldier is as gentle when not fighting as he is fierce when fighting. With his friends he is more like a woman. He will laugh with their joys, weep with their sorrows, and while he is

They have not the old "biting on the bullet" tradition of the British soldier, and they do not hesitate to show signs of pain. But put fifty Frenchmen to take a trench, and assure them that at least thirty-five will be killed in the taking, and I don't think you would see any of them fall out. The French



TYPICAL FRENCH REGIMENT RESTING ON THE MARCH

These soldiers are older than those seen in the first year of the war. As the need grew, older and older men were called until often father and son were in the ranks, while the grandfather might be making roads or guarding prisoners. The French kit was heavy and frequent short rests were necessary on the long marches.

laughing or weeping he means it. His forgetfulness of these moods will be quicker than that of a British soldier, it is true, but there is no insincerity at the time.

COURAGE ARISING FROM QUITE DIFFERENT SOURCES.

The French soldier's courage is undoubted, but it is a different kind of courage from that of the British soldier. It is not the stoic kind of courage. I have been in French hospitals many times, and have always been struck by the fact that the Frenchman makes more of pain than our men.

soldier's courage and the Briton's rise, I think, from different sources. The source of the Briton's courage is more egotistical. He sets a standard for himself, and tries to live up to that standard. British bravery may often be traced to this rather noble form of egotism. A man does not wish to "let himself down" in his own eyes any more than in other people's eyes. He will not desert a post or shirk a danger because he would feel not so good to himself if he did one of these things. It would not be "playing the game."

The French soldier's courage, on the

other hand, owes more, I think, to the communal sense. For his own particular sake he would do much to avoid a cut finger or a black eye, but for "La Patrie" and a cause he has at heart he would face the biggest Boche and the longest bayonet. The French soldier always strikes me as a man who overcomes his own personality and *makes* himself do brave things. His imagination tells him the risks he is running far more vividly than does the imagination of the average Briton. He will do his brave deed, then, with a little flourish. He is *consciously* brave, whereas some of our fellows really do not know when they are brave. They know only when anyone funks.

THE RELATIONS OF OFFICERS AND MEN IN THE FRENCH ARMY.

The French soldier has the dramatic temperament; the British soldier has not. This is another reason of the Frenchmen's greater demonstrativeness. You will see them kiss one another on the cheeks after a successful charge. They are delighted to have won and to have "come through." See an English—or particularly a Scottish—regiment in like circumstances and they will be laughing and joking no doubt, but striving at the same time, by all the means that they know, to keep to themselves their deeper emotions—the fact that they are pleased to see one another safe and sound and to be alive. Yet they must feel this just as much as the gallant French soldiers do.

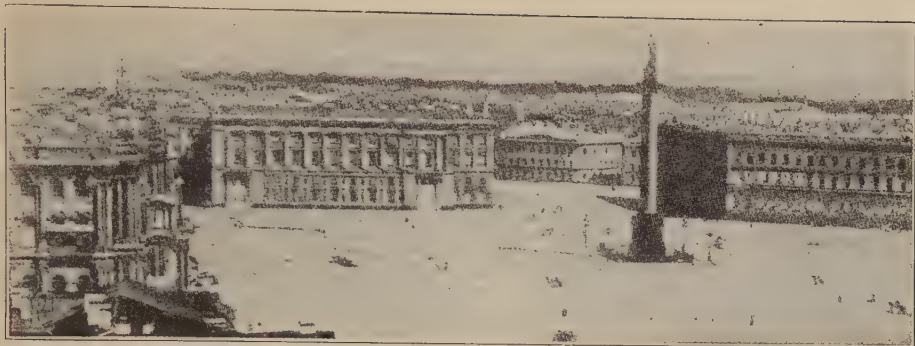
The French soldier's relations with his officer are rather different from those of the British soldier. Men and officers in the French Army are not nearly so like two different races of men. There is a tremendous respect, but at the same time there is not the same stiffness. The relationship does allow room for a mutual smile now and again. The nearest approach to this that I ever saw in the British Army was between the chaplains and the

men. A French soldier once asked me if it was against the rules in the British Army for an officer under the rank of major to smile with a common soldier. He said he had been struck by the way our young officers, except when alone with one man, avoided anything like cheery relations with their men. "Your older officers," he said, "are not so stiff and unnatural." Yet the French officers, he argued, were harder on offenders in the ranks than were the British. This greater intimacy between a French officer and his men—to whom he stands more in the light of father than of taskmaster—probably arises from the more democratic spirit of the French nation. Perhaps we shall come to that in time.

FRENCH INABILITY TO UNDERSTAND BRITISH SPORTS IN WARTIME.

The French soldier is generous, but not so generous as the British. He is much more thrifty. He cannot throw trouble aside in the way a British soldier can, nor can he quite understand the determination to throw trouble aside in, say, a game of football or a comic song. For a long time our men's football and games behind the lines, were utterly incomprehensible to the French, who quite misunderstood them. "Why do your men make a sport of the war?" they have asked me, in horrified tones. And the same idea struck other people than Frenchmen. M. Take Jonescu, the great pro-Entente statesman of Rumania, once asked me the same question, all because of a football game behind the lines. But the French have now come to see that fresh air and games are as much a part of the British race as the meat-breakfast habit.

The French soldier has an endurance and hardihood far greater than his physical condition and his more sedentary mode of life would suggest. I am still left wondering how the French ever contrived that great advance of theirs over two miles of Somme mud. It will rank among the wonders of war.



The Winter Palace and Square, Petrograd

CHAPTER XLII

The Russian Revolution

THE METEORIC RISE AND THE SUDDEN FALL OF ALEXANDER KERENSKY DURING 1917

THOUGH the tremendous events which occurred in Russia during the early part of 1917 have generally been designated as "the Russian Revolution," the facts indicate that they might be more truly described as the collapse, the disintegration, of the Russian autocracy, brought about through its own inherent weakness in the face of outside pressure. The revolutionary elements simply took advantage of the situation to establish an organization to take the place of the dead autocracy. It is only at a later date that they assume importance.

SOME REASONS FOR THE DOWNFALL ALREADY MENTIONED.

Some of the numerous factors concerned in the downfall of Russian autocracy have already been briefly mentioned: the treason of the inner court circle gathered about the Tsarina; the growing suspicion of the conservative intellectual elements, hitherto the main support of autocratic Russia, that they were being betrayed; and the weakness of the nation's economic organization. But out of these more or less abstract causes rise one or two striking personalities which help us to visualize the situation and which lend dramatic value to the events leading up to the climax of March, 1917.

First of these, from the point of view

of human interest, is the dark and evil figure of the monk, Rasputin, a mysterious shadow in the background. Rather a symbol of the portending disaster than an active participant in national affairs, never once does he emerge into the open daylight of the political arena. Yet his was the guiding hand which swung the nation's helm hard over and headed it for the rocks of fatal calamity.

THE MYSTERIOUS FIGURE OF THE MONK RASPUTIN.

Gregory Novikh was the son of illiterate Siberian mujiks. His early life was that of a common peasant boy, but even then he showed signs of those abnormal qualities which were eventually to bring him his questionable and short-lived success. It was during his early youth that he gained the name by which he is most widely known; Rasputin, meaning a rake, a person of loose morals. For Gregory had that magnetic personality before which many women of high and low quality succumbed. Of this power he took every advantage.

Discarding the garb of a laboring mujik, Rasputin turned toward a field of wider opportunity and became an itinerant monk, preying on the superstitious credulity of the peasantry to whom he presented himself as a holy man and a healer. Gradually

he sought higher game among the women of the more prosperous classes and so eventually he made the acquaintance of Madam Virubova, the favorite lady-in-waiting to the Tsarina.

THE SUPERSTITIOUS CREDULITY OF THE TSARINA.

Despite her exalted position, the Tsarina was a woman of rather ordinary intellectual qualities. She had long been a patroness of the occult cults, but when finally the Tsarevitch was born, a puny child, constitutionally diseased, she turned toward occultism with renewed faith.

Thus it was that Rasputin found his opportunity in an introduction to the inner court circle. Perhaps he really had some abnormal powers which rare persons possess, perhaps he was only a clever faker, but the fact remains that he succeeded in convincing the Tsarina, and the Tsar as well, that he had a healing influence on the little Tsarevitch. Report has it that Madam Virubova drugged the boy, and that Rasputin's demonstration of healing consisted in applying the antidote. Whatever the truth may be, Rasputin remained a permanent fixture in the court life. Once or twice, when the saner outer circle of the Imperial family succeeded in having him expelled, the Tsarevitch immediately became ill, the Tsarina developed a succession of hysterical outbursts, and always Rasputin was recalled. Gradually he acquired an influence possessed by no other one person, over the royal family; especially over the ignorant Tsarina.

WHAT WERE THE MOTIVES WHICH AFFECTED RASPUTIN?

There are those who contend that German gold bought Rasputin after the war broke out, that he was hired to plant the poison which was presently to develop within the court itself as rank treason. It is more probable that he realized that a defeated German autocracy would also mean an end to the Russian autocracy, to all autocracies, and so would wither the plant on which he was a parasite. Whatever his motives, he was the

central figure of the "dark forces," of those intriguing pro-German conspirators within the court and the government who desired the triumph of Germany and all that she represented, even at the cost of a defeated Russia.

Nicholas himself was a man of subnormal intelligence and capacity—indeed, his mental flabbiness almost approached a condition of feeble-mindedness. The Tsarina was at least a personality, a woman of some will power and capacity for determination, and she undoubtedly influenced the Tsar in all his actions, as her letters show. And she was the willing tool of Rasputin—"Our Friend," she called him—and those he served. Such was the chain from Potsdam to Petrograd.

STÜRMER RETIRES BUT PROTOPOPOV CARRIES ON.

The appointment of Boris von Stürmer as Premier had undoubtedly been at the instigation of Rasputin. The intrigues to bring about a separate peace with Germany have been mentioned in a previous chapter, and the exposure of Stürmer in the Duma. Even before this it was evident that he had been a disappointment to his masters. He lacked the skill, the subtlety of a really clever intriguer, and had neither the force of character nor the executive ability to carry through his task. Undoubtedly the "dark forces" were very little concerned over the exposure which forced his resignation. The man appointed to steer the ship of state on to the rocks of destruction had already been appointed—Protopopov, Minister of the Interior. As already narrated, the loyal Russians were still congratulating themselves over the elimination of von Stürmer when Protopopov stepped forward in his place. For the Premier who followed von Stürmer, Trepov, was and remained a mere figurehead, who, in fact, later developed sympathy for the Progressives.

Protopopov successfully weathered the storm of indignation from the floor of the Duma, and steadfastly continued to develop his plans. Not long

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before the close of 1916 there came to the ears of the members of the Duma reports of revolutionary activities among the working classes, especially those engaged in the munition factories. At first they turned accusingly to the members who represented the organized revolutionary elements, the Socialists and the labor leaders, who had declared themselves strongly for

urging them to remain at work while the nation was straining to win the war.

It was not long before it was discovered that the agitation among the masses of Petrograd was being carried on by the paid agents of the Ministry of the Interior. Possibly a few leaders of the "impossibilist" Socialist elements, later known as the Bolsheviki, worked in harmony with them, not



RASPUTIN AND HIS COTERIE

Gregory Rasputin—a sinister figure of a weird mediæval type—in whom the "dark forces" of disloyal and pro-German Russians centred. Rasputin was a kind of fakir or wizard such as flourished in all lands of twilight culture before the daybreak of modern science. Such men were known in pagan Rome and in the heathen Orient and in Christendom they continued to appear until the seventeenth century. Copyright, Underwood & Underwood

national unity in the face of the enemy. These radical leaders quickly convinced their conservative colleagues that they were not responsible for the agitation.

THE SOURCES OF SEDITIOUS AGITATION ARE DISCOVERED.

Mysterious placards had appeared on the walls of the munition factories and in working class districts, calling upon the workers to strike for better conditions. To prove their own sincerity the working class leaders immediately issued proclamations to their followers, calling on them to turn deaf ears to the mysterious agitators, and

because they were paid, but because they believed that the war would be, or could be, brought to an end by the working classes in all the belligerent countries striking behind the lines.

LOYAL RUSSIANS STRIVE TO STEM THE TIDE OF SEDITION.

Protopopov's plan was clear, so clear that a panic literally swept through the Duma and all intelligent, loyal Russians. Protopopov contemplated nothing less than a revolution at home, in Petrograd, which would, first of all, paralyze all effort behind the lines and make further military

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operations impossible. Then, when Russia lay helpless, he would call in the German forces to suppress the disorders—and the final aim of the conspirators would be accomplished.

This fact was literally shouted from the floor of the Duma, and it roused all loyal Russians regardless of their previous attitude toward the autocracy. This was the fact which members of

putin. On the night of December 30, 1916, a lonely policeman on patrol heard revolver shots and shouts from within the mansion of Prince Felix Yusopov, a member of the Imperial family by marriage, and one of the largest land-owners in Russia. Knocking at the door to investigate, the policeman was sent about his business by no less a person than the Grand



AFTER THE STORM OF WAR HAD PASSED

Effects of German bombardment in a town in Russian Poland. Such scenes of general desolation were only too frequent in the pathway of this war, and their horror is the modern repetition of the horror of the Middle Ages when cities were burned and sacked. The power of reparation and indemnity is confined to inanimate brick and stone. It cannot recreate homes and household gods destroyed in the gun-blast.

his own family presented to the Tsar—without success. The Tsarina was almost openly accused before him. As ever his answer was only a smile, and the remark, "There is none more loyal than the Tsarina."

RASPUTIN IS EXECUTED BY A GROUP OF NOBLEMEN.

In sheer desperation the leaders of those very elements, which in pre-war days had been the strongest supporters of the throne, took action. At that time, toward the end of the year, Protopopov's personal responsibility for the plot was not so obvious, and the blame was laid directly on Ras-

Duke Dimitri Pavlovitch, an ex-Minister of the Interior, who opened the door. Nor did he dare interfere when, half an hour later, he saw four men leave the house and get into an automobile, carrying an object resembling a human body in shape.

When daylight came bloodspots were discovered on the pavement and trailed to the river by the police, then over the ice to a hole which had been cut through. A rubber galosh was found near the hole. Three days later a human body, clad in the black cassock of a monk, was found in the river. The dead man was Rasputin. The dead



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M. MICHAEL RODZIANKO

President of the Russian Duma who guided its fortunes in the days of the revolution, and showed himself both moderate and far-seeing.

monk had been lured to the house of Prince Yusopov and there been summarily tried, found guilty, and executed by a group of men including the Prince himself, the Grand Duke Dimitri, A. N. Khvostov, also an ex-Minister of the Interior, and Vladimir Purishkevitch, the notorious Black Hundred leader and reactionary. These men openly proclaimed their deed, and no one dared call them to serious account. Indeed, they were hailed by every articulate Russian as heroes.

RASPUTIN'S DEATH TOO LATE TO SAVE THE THRONE.

In striking contrast to the pompous

ceremonies with which the funeral of the dead monk was conducted, and in which the Tsar himself and Protopopov acted as pallbearers, was the general rejoicing which took place all over Russia at the news that Rasputin was dead. But Rasputin had been destroyed too late to interfere with the succession of events which had been set in motion. With the desperation given him by the knowledge that he might any day share the fate of his master and colleague, Protopopov set about with renewed determination to accomplish his aims and protect the interests of his cause. And now, during the latter part of January and early February, 1917, his efforts began to bear fruit.

He began arresting and imprisoning the labor leaders who were fighting against the agitations of his agents. Nothing that

he had as yet done was so openly significant. With a clear field in which to work, without being hampered by the police, of which they were themselves members, the pseudo-revolutionists began to succeed in arousing the discontent of the workers of Petrograd. The scarcity of food was now reaching the stage of acute famine. The few honest Socialists and labor leaders still at liberty could no longer make themselves heard. On February 27, 1917, over 300,000 workers were on strike in Petrograd. The critical moment was approaching.

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THE STRIKES IN PETROGRAD CONTINUE TO INCREASE.

On March 1 the only labor representative left in the Duma issued a last appeal to the strikers, exhorting them to return to work to save Russia. That proclamation was completely suppressed by the Government—the leaflets were seized and destroyed by the police. This was the final proof of Protopopov's treachery, if any were

of certain houses, to cover the public squares and other strategic points, where disorder was likely to begin. Protopopov wanted disorder, but he did not mean to let it get out of his control. A few days like Red Sunday were needed to serve as a pretext.

THE COUNCIL OF WORKINGMEN'S DELEGATES IS ORGANIZED.

But the disorders did not manifest themselves so soon as he had expected



STREET FIGHTING IN PETROGRAD

Much of the bloodshed which stained the streets of Petrograd in the Russian Revolution was due to Protopopov and the police, who had promoted disturbances among the disaffected in order to suppress them by force. When the soldiers threw in their lot with the populace the police were in a hopeless position, and those who were not shot were imprisoned. In the street fighting in Petrograd about 2500 people were killed and wounded.

needed. During the following week the unrest among the populace continued to increase. Food was so scarce that not only the wealthy went hungry, but the troops of the garrison were starved, which was poor tactics on the part of the conspirators.

On March 9 street railway traffic in Petrograd ceased, for the street railway men had gone on strike. The people gathered in the streets, shouting for food, but otherwise creating no disorders. The soldiers, both cavalry and infantry, were called out to patrol the streets, while squads of police lugged machine guns up to the roofs

or desired. Realizing that the workers were going to strike anyhow, the real leaders of the labor elements desisted from protesting and began directing the strike instead. Quietly they organized the Council, or Soviet, of Workingmen's Delegates, and through this body representing the strikers, they assumed control, thus checking disorders. What might otherwise have been a blind mass protest without any conscious leadership, and therefore bound to end in disorder, became a controlled movement. The agent provocateurs had been able to arouse the movement, but failing another Father

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Gapon, they had not been able to direct it, once it was aroused.

The leaders in the Soviet were at first in harmony with the members of the Duma. One of them, in fact, a young lawyer, Alexander Kerensky, was also a member of the Duma, representing the Social Revolutionist Party. Thus the Duma leaders understood the situation, and the danger

its connections." The Tsar was then at military headquarters, but Protopopov hastily despatched a messenger to him, who brought back a signed ukase proroguing the Duma for a month. The Elder Committee, representing all the political factions in the Duma, decided to ignore the ukase and refused to dissolve.

Meanwhile the crowds continued



REVOLUTIONISTS STARTING ON A POLICE HUNT

Animosity against the police, creatures of the old bureaucracy, suppressed through long years of terrorism, burst into full flame when they started shooting upon assembled crowds. Armed civilians and soldiers crowded into motor-lorries and raced from point to point, driving the police by a hail of bullets from coigns of vantage on roofs and in garrets.

which had been momentarily averted. But, realizing that it might be only a question of a few days, or perhaps hours, before acts of aggression on the part of the police might break the restraining hold of the Soviet leaders on the strikers and precipitate disorder, the Duma hastened to take action.

THE DUMA REFUSES TO BE PROROGUED.

By March 10th the strike was practically general. On that day the Duma officially broke off official relations with the Government, stating in its proclamation that "with such a Government the Duma forever severs

marching up and down the streets of the city, shouting and calling on the Cabinet to resign, but still in an orderly manner. It was noted that the Cossacks, usually so rough in handling demonstrators, hustled them very gently and good-naturedly. An order was issued forbidding the gathering of crowds. The people, as was to be expected, ignored the order. This gave Protopopov a pretext. He commanded the chief of the garrison to order out his troops in full force and clear the streets, even if they must be swept clean with machine gun and rifle fire.

PROTOPOPOV ATTEMPTS TO QUELL THE STORM HE HAD RAISED.

The police, men picked for their fitness for just such work, immediately obeyed and began firing down on the multitudes from their stations on the housetops, and so precipitated the first skirmishes, for now a few armed workmen and students became suddenly belligerent. It was over his faith in the troops that Protopopov's plans went to pieces. There were 40,000 soldiers in Petrograd at that time, more than enough to suppress an uprising. And when had Russian soldiers, especially Cossacks, ever refused to suppress revolutionary demonstrations?

But the Russian Army had undergone a very radical transformation during the three years of the war. The old-time regular establishment had been flooded by recruits from the masses. The Russian Army had become the masses themselves—armed. Even the Cossack regiments, isolated and privileged, had been in the field and come into intimate contact with the people in the democratic life at the front. All the young men of the nation had come together in the trenches, where men talk as well as shoot, and they had come to a realization of their common interests.

THE PICKED REGIMENTS REFUSE TO FIRE UPON THE PEOPLE.

When the officers of the Petrograd garrison called out their regiments and commanded them to shoot down the people in the streets of the city, there was an almost unanimous refusal on the part of the soldiers to do so. As an instance, James J. Houghteling, Jr., an eye-witness of the revolution, states in his "Diary of the Russian Revolution" that "this morning Turner, of the Embassy, passed the barracks of the Preobrajensky, Peter the Great's old bodyguard, and saw the entire regiment drawn up in a hollow square and its colonel addressing it on the necessity of firing on the mob. Suddenly a soldier stepped from the ranks and, clubbing his rifle, struck down the speaker; and the greater part of the regiment seized and disarmed the other officers. A few

blocks distant, in front of the Artillery Arsenal, the soldiers of the Volhynian Life-Guards had shot the general in command, and practically the whole regiment had revolted."

However, serious disorder or disorganization might have been the result had it been only the common soldiers who refused to support the corrupt autocracy, but the same spirit which had created the Progressive Bloc in the conservative Duma had also permeated the army leadership. In the majority of cases the officers of the regiments went over to the cause of the people with their soldiers. It was a general military mutiny which encouraged the Duma to declare itself the supreme government of the Russian nation.

THE SOLDIERS JOIN THE ATTACK ON THE POLICE.

The soldiers not only refused to fire on the people, but they marched out into the streets and, joining the people, began to attack the police. This fighting began in the afternoon of March 11, and it may be said that at that hour began the Russian Revolution; at that hour the Russian autocracy fell. Michael Rodzianko, President of the Duma, sent a last telegraphic appeal to the Tsar to save the situation. "The situation is serious. In the capital is anarchy. The government is paralyzed. . . . It is indispensable to entrust to a person having the confidence of the country the formation of a new ministry. . . ." To this urgent appeal the Tsar made no answer, and so lost the last opportunity to save his throne.

Rodzianko then telegraphed to the army commanders at the front to present the situation to the Tsar, but the monarch seemed to be in a comatose state, unable to develop sufficient resolution to take action. It was said that while the generals explained the situation to him he twirled his thumbs and gazed abstractedly out of the window of his car. And so the revolution in his capital sped past him. This same inertia, to a lesser degree, also possessed the majority of the members of the Duma.

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LEADERS IN THE DUMA ARE DEVELOPED FOR THE OCCASION.

It was the leaders of the old revolutionary elements, the Social Revolutionists and the Social Democrats, who asserted themselves and took the situation in hand, and so saved Russia from complete anarchy. Several of them, notably Alexander Kerensky and N. S. Tchkhedze, both Socialists, were also members of the Duma, and

Under the danger of that political disorganization which Protopopov had wished to bring about, so that he might have a pretext for making separate peace with Germany, these two naturally antagonistic factions allowed their fundamental difference of interests to recede into the background, inspired by a common sentiment of patriotism. So, for the time being, they worked loyally together.



BARRICADES ACROSS A MAIN STREET

Guns decorated with the red flag of international Socialism defend these barricades which have been thrown up in one of the principal thoroughfares of the Russian capital. All business was at a standstill, and the government paralyzed. When the soldiers showed their intention of siding with the workers the police soon surrendered.

together with such strong characters as Rodzianko, Prince Lvov and Paul Miliukov, saved it from utter discredit. It was the Soviet, however, the Council of Workingmen's and Soldiers' Deputies, which instantly gripped the reins which had fallen from the hands of the dead autocracy. Thus, from the very beginning the new government assumed a dual character, a partnership between two irreconcilable elements. For the Duma, by a large majority, represented the aristocratic and the mercantile interests, while the Soviet represented those elements of the people who had already had experience in mass organization.

THE SOVIET ORGANIZES THE FORCES OF THE REVOLUTION.

By Monday morning, March 12, the Soviet had knit together the fighting forces of the revolution into an organization that might have done credit to men of far more military experience. There were, of course, high ranking officers among the mutineers thoroughly in sympathy with the Socialistic ideals of the Soviet leaders, and no doubt they assisted in directing the operations of the revolutionary forces. On that Monday morning the red flag of international Socialism was raised over Petrograd.

During that morning the revolu-

tionists delivered their first organized attack against the remnant of the loyal forces of the autocracy by storming the Arsenal. This building was taken, its commanding officer killed and the arms and ammunition distributed among the soldiers of the revolution. Automobiles, crowded with armed revolutionists, scoured the streets of the city, hunting down the police, many of whom were still hiding in houses and buildings and sniping the revolutionists. The jails and prisons were broken open and the political prisoners were liberated. The police headquarters building was also stormed and sacked; all its archives and records were thrown out in the street in a heap and burned. Then came a lull in the fighting and a delegation from the revolted soldiers presented itself before the Duma building and demanded an interview with the Duma leaders.

THE PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT IN THE PROCESS OF ORGANIZATION.

"The autocracy is overthrown," they said. "We have liberated Russia from her tyranny. Where do you stand?" In reply Rodzianko stepped forward and addressed the crowd. He declared himself and the members of the Duma unequivocally in favor of a constitutional democratic government for Russia. Kerensky and Tchkeidze also came forward in his support, and the assembled soldiers cheered for the Duma.

That afternoon the Elder Council of the Duma, representing all the political parties, elected a temporary committee to co-operate with a similar committee of the Soviet to maintain order and organize a provisional government. These two committees then went into joint session and so remained almost continuously for many days. Meanwhile there was a steady stream of delegations from all sorts of civic and military organizations to the Duma building, where the committee was in session, bearing the formal adhesion of their constituents to the new régime. One of these represented the Imperial Guards at the Imperial Palace who had revolted and arrested the Tsarina and her children. Meanwhile the

soldiers of the new government were bringing in as prisoners all the officials of the old autocracy until none remained at large except the arch-traitor, Protopopov. A determined search had been made for him, but he seemed to have disappeared. Finally, on the evening of the 13th an old man in civilian dress presented himself before the student guard at the doorway of the Duma building.

PROTOPOPOV GOES TO PRISON NEVER TO EMERGE ALIVE.

"I wish to present myself to those in authority," he said. "I am Protopopov, ex-Minister of the Interior." A shout of rage went up from the bystanders, and had not Kerensky just then appeared violence might have been offered to the old autocrat. He was led away to prison, never again to emerge, for when they came into power the Bolsheviki made short work of him. One report has it that he died insane.

On Wednesday the Grand Duke Cyril Vladimirovitch presented himself to the Duma and placed himself and his whole bodyguard at its disposal. But this was no more surprising than the alacrity with which all the military commanders on the fighting front responded to the telegrams sent them by Rodzianko, explaining the new situation. One and all sent in their declarations of loyalty to the new revolutionary régime. The whole Russian Army was with the revolution, from the Baltic to the Black Sea.

From the provincial cities came news equally encouraging. Everywhere the revolution was accepted, if not with great enthusiasm, at least with quiet acquiescence. Equally encouraging was the attitude of the Allied governments; the French and British ambassadors had immediately hastened to inform the President of the Duma that their respective governments accorded recognition to the new régime. These countries and the United States as well, later sent missions to offer all possible aid to the new government.

THE PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT IS FINALLY ORGANIZED.

Early in the afternoon of March 15, the two committees announced the

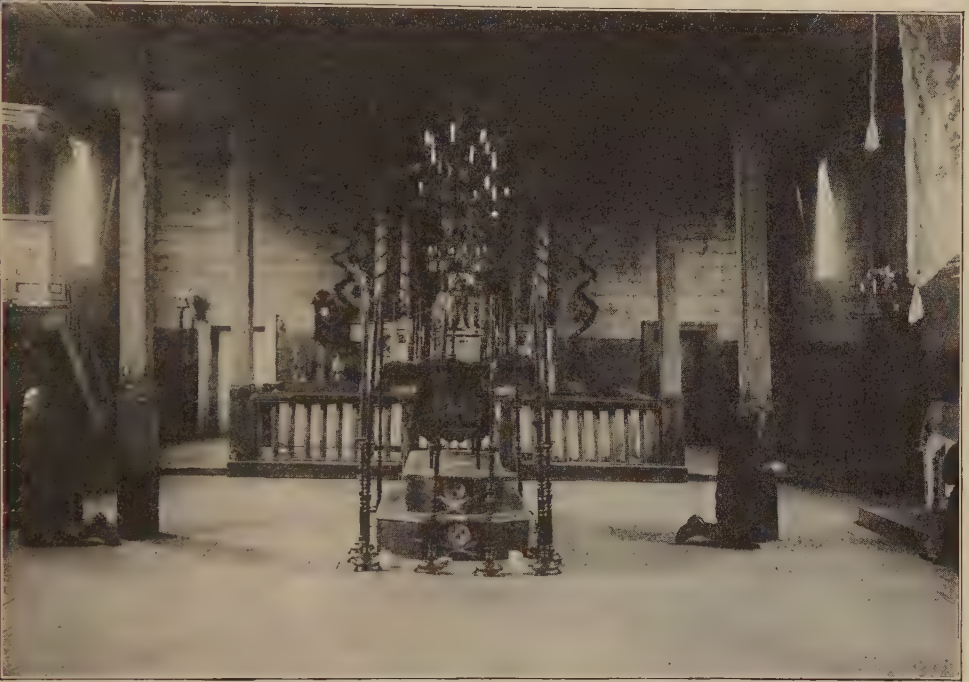
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result of their labors—the formation of the Provisional Government. Prince George Lvov, widely known as a Liberal-Constitutionalist, but above all as the organizer of the All-Russian Union of Municipalities, which had been such a power in the work behind the lines during the war, was named as Premier, the one man against whom no protest was raised in either the

the new government. Obviously the Soviet, though it undoubtedly held the real power in Petrograd, desired strongly to gain the confidence of the middle classes.

WHAT SHOULD BE THE FUTURE FORM OF GOVERNMENT?

In the maintenance of law and order the two elements stood as one. In their desire to continue the war



VIEW OF CHURCH IN PRZEROSL, RUSSIA

Poverty-stricken and primitive as is the interior of this little church, its aspect in no wise affects the simple piety of the mourners praying for the soul of the departed at the side altars. Unlettered and rude, the Russian peasant's nature has nevertheless a deep fount of mysticism—rich soil for the tenets of his church.

Ruschin

radical or the middle class camp. Paul Miliukov, learned historian and leader of the Constitutional Democrats, was Minister of Foreign Relations. Alexander Kerensky, a member of the Social Revolutionary Party, was Minister of Justice. Shingarev, a physician by profession and a member of the Constitutional Democratic Party, was made Minister of Agriculture, an important post since the food problem came under its jurisdiction.

The Liberals, or Constitutional Democrats, obviously had a majority in the Cabinet, as Kerensky was practically the only radical prominent in

against the Central Powers to a triumphant finish, together with the Allies, there was also no room for disagreement. But in the character, or form, of the future permanent government of Russia there was considerable difference, but this was finally settled by compromise. The radicals ceded their demand for a pure Socialist republic and agreed to a constitutional monarchy. But the conservatives on their part agreed that Tsar Nicholas must be deposed. It was agreed that the puny invalid, the Tsarevitch, should be placed on the throne for the present, under the control of some

responsible regent. As for the constitutional form of the future Russian state, that would be left to a Constituent Assembly, to be elected as soon as possible by the whole Russian people, on the basis of universal suffrage for women as well as men.

The Duma and the Soviet, together, had already dispatched two representatives to the front to obtain the formal abdication of the Tsar. Rodzianko

was convinced that this was impossible, and joined the two delegates in demanding of the Tsar that he abdicate.

THE TSAR ABDICATES FOR HIMSELF AND HIS SON.

Nicholas acted under this new influence as readily as he had succumbed to the influence of his former reactionary advisers and signed the document which left his throne vacant.

"But I cannot consent to part from my son," he said, "so I abdicate in favor of my brother Michael."

The Grand Duke Michael wisely refused to accept the honor thus bestowed on him unless at the request of a Constituent Assembly, thus leaving the throne vacant. By that time the manifestation of public opinion in favor of abolishing entirely the monarchical form of government asserted itself so strongly that no further effort was made to find a candidate for the throne, and the Provisional Government remained the supreme authority of the state.

The ex-Tsar Nicholas, for several days remained at liberty, traveling aimlessly back and forth in his sumptuous drawingroom car, until finally he was arrested and imprisoned at Tsarskoe Selo, together with the rest of his family. Here he resigned himself completely to his fate, devoting his time to association with his family, chopping down trees and making entries of these minor occupations in his diary.



GRAND DUKE MICHAEL OF RUSSIA

In his favor Nicholas II abdicated his crown, March, 1917.

had been in close telegraphic communication with General Ruzsky, in command of the northern armies, and he, in his turn, had communicated with all the other commanders along the whole front. All agreed with the Provisional Government that the Tsar should be made to abdicate. Before the two delegates, Gutchkov, War Minister in the new Cabinet, and Bublikov, a deputy, had arrived in Pskov, Ruzsky's headquarters, Ruzsky had made a determined effort to awaken the Tsar to a realization of the situation and to make some sort of action which would save him his throne. When the delegates arrived Ruzsky was con-

DISAGREEMENTS ARISE BETWEEN THE SOVIET AND THE DUMA.

For some weeks the Provisional Government continued its work of establishing its power, in complete harmony with the two contending factions which it represented, personified in the members of the Soviet and the Duma. Orders were promulgated liberating all political prisoners, expropriating the Imperial estates and granting full civil recognition to the Jews. Then the death penalty was abolished in the army, but as the danger of political anarchy, which both factions feared, disappeared, rival tendencies began to assert themselves.

The first of these was the desire of

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the radicals within the Soviet to extend extreme democratic principles to the army organization. Officers should not be appointed, but elected. The salute should be abolished; officers and men should be equal. Unfortunately the country was still at war, fighting against armies which were under strict discipline—and practical military operations do not harmonize with democratic idealism. The military commanders at the front immediately protested against these radical demands. And for a time the Soviet recognized their protests. But the idea had been voiced; the rank and file, having heard so much talk about democracy, desired to see it in practice among them. The same spirit began to permeate the workingmen in the munition factories. Their leaders had told them that Socialism would mean shorter hours and more pay, a fuller life. Why, then, should this speeding up continue? Yes, the war must be won, and that meant increasing the output of war munitions as rapidly as possible. But—had not these same Socialists once said that all men were brothers? So what were they fighting the Germans for, anyhow? These thoughts were not as yet loudly voiced, but they began to grip the minds of the workers and soldiers alike.

THE FUTURE DICTATOR OF RUSSIA ARRIVES ON THE SCENE.

Early in April there arrived in Petrograd one who was to formulate these thoughts in words, loudly and more loudly, as time passed—Nikolai Lenin, the “impossibilist” Socialist. Like most revolutionary leaders he had adopted a pseudonym. His name was Vladimir Illitch Ulyanov.

In theory there was little difference between the opinions of Kerensky and those of Lenin—both were Marxian Socialists. It was entirely in tactics that they disagreed. Both believed that society is composed of two classes, the capitalist, or exploiting class, and the proletariat, or the exploited class, and that the proletariat should forever abolish this difference by coming into power and establishing a social system based on the collective ownership and

democratic control of industry. But Kerensky believed that this could only be accomplished gradually through evolution, and that meanwhile conditions as they are must be dealt with practically. He was what in Socialist terminology is called an “opportunist.” Above all, he believed, German imperialism must be crushed first of all, and to accomplish that both classes must join together in the effort to accomplish it, as they had joined



SHADOWS OF GLORY

Empty frame in the Duma whence the Tsar's portrait was removed. Eagles and other heraldic pomp that adorned the Imperial Palace were torn down and burnt in the courtyard.

together in overthrowing the Russian autocracy. Later the social reorganization could be accomplished, peacefully or otherwise.

LENIN'S UNCOMPROMISING THEORY OF THE ORGANIZATION OF SOCIETY.

Lenin placed the social revolution first and foremost in the order of importance. The war with Germany was only a struggle between two capitalist states, in which the proletariat was merely the tool of the contending powers. Let Germany invade Russian territory, what matter? For it would be only a question of a little time before the German proletariat would destroy the German autocracy, which was in its essence capitalistic. A

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conquering Germany would only destroy itself as a capitalist state.

This was the propaganda which Lenin and his thirty followers who came into Russia a month after the revolution began to spread among the soldiers and the workingmen. Later came Leon Trotzky, from America, and joined forces with them. Trotzky was a Russian by birth, and had lived in several other countries of Europe before coming to the United

ites in their ultimate ideals. Yet they were growing more and more conscious of their differences with the Liberals. This growing difference of opinion came to a head in April, 1917, when Miliukov, as Foreign Minister, ventured to express the foreign policy of the Provisional Government for the benefit of the outside world, more especially Russia's allies in the war. The occupation of Constantinople by Russia and command of the Dardanelles, said Miliukov, was necessary to the economic welfare of the Russian nation.

This was a proposition, involving sovereignty of one people over another, against which the mildest Socialist might be expected to protest. Either Miliukov completely misunderstood the Socialist point of view, or disregarded it. At any rate, his words brought forth a perfect storm of protest. The Soviet literally boiled over. The radicals quickly asserted themselves, and a few days later came the famous manifesto, or declaration of policy, enouncing the rights of "self determination" of all peoples, big or small, whatever the outcome of the war might be. Indemnities also, in principle, were denounced.

THE DETERMINATION TO FIGHT STILL STRONG.

But if the Germans, who made a great deal of capital of this difference of opinion which had arisen within the governing body of revolutionary Russia, hoped that it might be utilized in creating such a split as would weaken the prosecution of the war, they were mistaken. This was not to be the cause of the decline of Russia's military strength. For in the second week of April a national convention of the Soldiers' and Workingmen's Soviets from all Russia passed a resolution in favor of continuing the war against Germany, by a vote of 325 against 57.

The real source of discord came in the conflicting tendencies within the army itself. The Soviet, representing as it did, the rank and file of the army, still realized that the organization of an army is incompatible with the principles of democracy, and conceded



WHERE DEMOCRACY BROKE THE BARRIERS

One of the first things the revolutionaries did was to cover the royal insignia on the Palace gates or public buildings.

States where he had lived a few months. He was not so much of a pacifist as Lenin, but he believed that it was not necessary to defeat the Central Powers before the Russian proletariat, at least, could proceed to establish a perfect Socialist state. Later the German proletariat, however victorious the masters might have been, would follow the example of the Russian working classes and so pave the way to a world-wide commonwealth.

A MAJORITY IN THE SOVIET AGAINST THESE VIEWS.

With these "impossibilist" views the majority of the radicals of the Soviet were not in sympathy, however much they might agree with the Lenin-

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that on the field of battle the army commanders should have full and absolute authority. Behind the lines they would not concede so much. This brought about a continual conflict with the commanding generals. Finally on May 13, 1917, General Kornilov, commanding the Petrograd garrison, registered his protest by handing in his resignation. Generals Gurko and

the Provisional Government, which it had hitherto refused to do.

A complete reorganization of the Cabinet followed on May 19. Miliukov, who had made himself unpopular by his utterance regarding Constantinople, retired, but Prince Lvov continued as Premier. Kerensky took up the portfolio of War. Terestchenko, a man of the same type as



THE BATTALION OF DEATH

Russian girl soldiers of the "Battalion of Death" assembled in front of their barracks at Tsarkoe Selo, fifteen miles south of Petrograd, the seat of two former imperial palaces. The battalion remained loyal to the last to the Kerensky Provisional Government and the Allies, and for a while counted as an effective military unit.

N. Y. Times Photo Service

Brusilov did likewise. Obviously it was a concerted move on the part of the army authorities, for a few days later Minister of War Gutchkov also resigned. A serious crisis was thus precipitated.

KERENSKY COMES FORWARD TO ARRANGE A COMPROMISE.

Again it was Kerensky who rose to the occasion as the mediator between the two conflicting elements. In an impassioned speech he appealed for unity to a joint meeting of the Soviet and Duma committees, with the result that the Soviet agreed to exercise its power solely through representation in

Lvov, became Minister of Foreign Affairs, but Shingarev was made Minister of Finance. There were six Socialists in the new Cabinet. The Soviet now passed a resolution expressing full confidence in the Provisional Government and agreed to recognize it as the supreme authority in all matters.

KERENSKY ATTEMPTS TO AROUSE THE SPIRIT OF THE ARMY.

The generals now withdrew their resignations and returned to their posts. Kerensky, as War Minister, set out on a tour of all the fronts, where he exhorted the soldiers to observe strict

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discipline until the war should have been won. At this time a peasant's congress was held, and it is significant that though showing itself strongly Socialistic, Lenin, who was candidate for one of the offices in the organization, received only eleven votes.

The Government now made active preparations for a determined offensive on the fighting fronts. Kerensky had accepted the resignation of Alexiev



GENERAL SOUKHOMLINOV

General Soukhomlinov, Russian Minister of War at the beginning of the struggle, was convicted of high treason under the Provisional Government and sentenced to life imprisonment.

as Commander-in-chief, and appointed Brusilov in his stead. The Leninites, otherwise known as the Bolsheviks, now began intensive efforts to counteract these preparations. Possibly they sensed the growing demoralization in the army, and mistook it for sympathy for their doctrines, for in the middle of June they prepared to organize a popular demonstration in Petrograd, in the hope of having it develop into an overthrow of the Provisional Government. However, on June 23, the date fixed for the demonstration,

nothing occurred. The Soviet issued a proclamation calling on all its constituents to boycott it.

THE MEANING OF THE NEW TERMS, BOLSHIEVSKI AND MENSHEVSKI.

There is much confusion over the term, "Bolsheviks". The origin is simple. After the Revolution of 1905 the Social Democratic party in Russia split into two factions. The more radical had a majority, *bolshinstvo*; the more conservative wing was a minority, *menshinstvo*. Hence the Bolsheviks meant at this time the majority, or more radical wing, of the party and the Mensheviks the minority wing. The Bolsheviks were, of course, opposed to the Provisional Government which they considered to be an unholy compromise, and desired to overthrow it at once.

Early in the first week of July dispatches from the front indicated that the offensive against the Germans was beginning. Day after day the reports continued describing Russian successes, and for a while it seemed that the Russian revolutionary army was to score a great triumph over the German and Austrian forces.

The sudden collapse of this brilliantly begun offensive is described elsewhere. By the middle of the month it was obvious that the fighting spirit had gone out of the majority of the Russian soldiers. On July 18 the Bolsheviks succeeded in creating some disorders in the streets of the capital, which resulted in several skirmishes between the demonstrators and the troops of the garrison. The latter still showed themselves loyal to the Government, and the disturbance was put down with sharp determination.

KERENSKY BECOMES THE HEAD OF THE GOVERNMENT.

On July 20 it was further announced that Prince Lvov had resigned as Premier, for the reason that Kerensky and his radical associates were trying to rouse the enthusiasm of the soldiers at the front by declaring Russia formally a republic. Prince Lvov declared it to be his opinion that they were trespassing upon the prerogatives of the future Constituent Assembly,

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which alone had the right to determine the final form of Russia's permanent government. Nevertheless, five non-Socialists still remained in the Cabinet, so that it still remained a coalition government with Kerensky as Premier. At the same time Kerensky removed Brusilov as Commander-in-Chief, and in his place appointed General Kornilov, the Cossack chief.

From this time Kerensky's position

powers. Kerensky and his associates, on the other hand, while recognizing the necessity of stricter discipline on the fighting fronts, believed that the enthusiasm of the soldiers only could save Russia, and that a dictatorship, however temporary, would kill whatever enthusiasm there still remained and lead to a strong movement toward the left, toward the "Bolsheviki of the Left", the Leninites.



KERENSKY AND BRUSILOV

A photograph of Kerensky (right) and General Brusilov at the Russian headquarters on the Southwestern front. "Stout hearts and stern hands are required to stay the rout in the army," stated the Premier, and for a while Brusilov hoped to bring the army back to its old morale and sweep the Germans out of Russia.

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was peculiarly trying. There was deep discontent throughout the nation over the failure of the military offensive. The conservative elements laid it to the agitation for democratic principles which had been carried on in the army. There was deep discontent with Kerensky's policy of making concessions to the radical elements, which he was undoubtedly doing, behind the lines, at least. These "Bolsheviki of the Right," as Kerensky termed the extreme conservatives, believed that the time had come to establish a "strong government," with dictatorial

THE GAP BETWEEN CONSERVATIVE AND RADICAL WIDENS.

Kerensky has since stated in his recently published book ("The Prelude to Bolshevism; the Kornilov Rebellion," London, 1919) that conspiracies against the Provisional Government were forming in various conservative circles, notably in the League of Army Officers, the Cossack organizations and among the financial interests of Moscow.

Believing, however, that the nation as a whole was strongly in favor of prosecuting the war to a victorious

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conclusion before establishing a permanent form of national organization, Kerensky determined to give the whole people an opportunity to express themselves through something more broadly democratic than either the Soviet or the Duma. So he called a national conference, to be held in Moscow in the latter part of August. All kinds of organizations and social bodies were invited to send delegates; the Zemstvos, the co-operative societies, the labor unions, the Red Cross, the professional leagues and the army itself. It was, in fact, a sort of provisional constituent assembly, whose authority, Kerensky hoped, would impress both the extreme right and the extreme left.

REPRESENTATIVES OF ALL FACTIONS ASSEMBLE IN MOSCOW.

The gathering took place in Moscow on August 25, 1917. As nearly as was possible, all Russia was represented there. For three days representatives of all shades of political opinion expressed themselves freely. Kerensky states in his book that the parties of the extreme right hoped to develop so strong a sentiment in their favor among the delegates that they might make it the occasion of a coup d'état, and there and then proclaim a dictatorship, with the Commander-in-Chief as its head. If this is true, they were sorely disappointed. The keynote of the conference was sounded when Bublikov, representing the Liberal Party, made a passionate plea to the middle classes to co-operate with the democratic elements. As he finished, Tseretelli, a Socialist representative, impulsively sprang forward and gripped his hand, whereupon the floor of the conference hall became the scene of a tremendous demonstration of enthusiasm.

THE CONFLICTING STORIES OF THE KORNILOV REBELLION.

The result of the Conference was to strengthen Kerensky in his belief that a coalition Government was the only thing that could save Russia from anarchy. Many of the measures Kornilov demanded, not only at the conference but of the Provisional Government directly, Kerensky, who was apparently developing a high sense of

his own importance, believed proper, but he objected to the form in which they were put; Kornilov "demanded" them, and Kerensky insisted that Kornilov give the first example of discipline by moderating his attitude toward the government.

Now come the contradictory stories of the Kornilov conspiracy. Let us take Kerensky's story first. He says that on the night of September 8, 1917, Vladimir Lvov, who had previously been a member of the Cabinet, came to him in Petrograd and announced that he brought a message from Kornilov, at army headquarters to this effect, that the Provisional Government should resign from power and hand over their authority to Kornilov. Kerensky says that this ultimatum came as a complete surprise, that he immediately placed himself in direct telegraphic communication with Kornilov, who verified the message, and demanded that all power be handed over to him.

Kerensky's measures to suppress this act of rebellion were, naturally, backed by the full power of the Soviet. Kornilov had dispatched a division of Caucasians toward the capital, ostensibly to quell a Bolshevik uprising, but really, so Kerensky believed, for the purpose of overthrowing him, should he refuse to retire. The commander of this division, General Krimov, sensing the opposition he would have against him, first demonstrated to him by the refusal of the railroad workers to transport his supplies and troops, came to Petrograd alone and shot himself. A few days later Kornilov also came to a realization of the hopelessness of a counter-revolution from the right, and submitted to arrest. For a few days Alexiev, though very reluctantly, consented to assume the chief military command in his place, but presently he was superseded by General Dukhonin.

KORNILOV'S STORY DIFFERS IN MANY PARTICULARS.

On the other hand, Kornilov said that Savinkov, Kerensky's Minister of War, and Lvov had come to him, he

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supposed with the authorization of Kerensky, and had discussed the question of the dictatorship, and that he had consented to an arrangement under a directorate of four, of which he and Kerensky were to be the two dominating personalities, and that at the last moment Kerensky had treacherously gone back on the understanding, to gain credit in the eyes of the radicals. He further said that the

highly improper to have anticipated the findings of this commission by any declaration of his own. Unfortunately the final catastrophe came before the commission could conclude its work and publish its findings. Kerensky presents his own testimony before the commission with explanatory notes in full in his book. His story is plausible, but it is probable that neither he nor Kornilov told all the truth.



WHEN THE MEN LAID DOWN THEIR ARMS

The "Battalion of Death" was recruited from among the intellectual classes of Russia. Only women between eighteen and twenty-five years were taken, and then not unless they were of exceptional physique. They wore their hair cropped, and were trained by one of the regiments which remained loyal to the Kerensky régime.

International News

troops had been dispatched toward Petrograd at the suggestion of Savinkov. So Kornilov said in plain words.

Kerensky, in his recent work, ascribes his later downfall to the suspicion this accusation aroused against him in the minds of the radicals. Certainly the conservative papers made the most of this accusation and openly denounced him. On the other hand, he says that he did not come out with a public statement of the actual facts, because a commission of inquiry had been instituted, and it would have been

KERENSKY DECLARES RUSSIA TO BE A REPUBLIC.

On September 15, 1917, Kerensky issued a proclamation declaring Russia a Republic. While an attack from Kornilov was expected and the result of his conspiracy still remained in doubt, the Soviet had exerted all its power and influence in its support of the Provisional Government. Fear of a reactionary revolution dominated the masses of the workers and soldiers who had supported the overthrow of the autocracy. With the arrest of Kornilov and the return of more or less

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normal conditions, this fear began to manifest itself into a strong swing toward the left—toward the doctrines of the Bolsheviki. It was Kornilov's attempted revolution "by the Bolsheviki of the Right," Kerensky says, which brought about the later successful revolution by "the Bolsheviki of the Left." The people had been frightened, and this fear caused them to turn hastily in the opposite direction.

Tchkhaidze, had resigned, Leon Trotzky was elected to fill the office he had vacated. The Soviet was now truly in the hands of the Bolsheviki.

The elements now in power in the Soviet, represented by such men as Trotzky, held that the Moscow Conference had not truly represented the peasant and working classes of Russia; that the bourgeoisie, or propertied classes, had been the controlling ele-



THE KREMLIN, IN MOSCOW, THE HOLY CITY

Kremlin, a word of uncertain origin, is used to designate the citadel in a Russian city. The best known kremlin is that of Moscow lying on the north bank of the Moskva, for many centuries the centre of the political and religious life of Russia and still the most venerated place in the heart of every Russian.

THE BOLSHEVIKI SECURE CONTROL OF THE SOVIET.

On the evening of September 13 the delegates to the Petrograd Soviet held a special meeting to discuss the situation, and it was on this occasion that the Bolsheviki suddenly developed a majority vote—279 against 150. At least this was the vote against the principle of a coalition government—in favor of an exclusive control of the state by the representatives of the "proletariat." The result of this unexpected swing of opinion in the Soviet toward the left was the resignation of the members of the Executive Committee, on the 19th. It was extremely significant that after the chairman of the Executive Committee,

ment in the deliberations. Therefore, being now in control, they used the Soviet as a means for calling another conference in Petrograd, known as the Democratic Congress, which was to represent the working classes of Russia. About 1,200 delegates attended, representing, first of all, the provincial soviets. Aside from these, however, there were representatives of the Zemstvos, the labor organizations, the co-operative societies and the peasants' unions.

THE PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT ATTEMPTS TO ASSERT INDEPENDENCE.

This gathering the Provisional Government refused to recognize officially, but Kerensky appeared before the opening session, in his private capacity,

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he took care to explain. The Government, he declared, would henceforward recognize no bodies except the Constituent Assembly, when that should have been elected.

Kerensky obviously sensed that he was facing opposition on the floor of the Democratic Congress, for he immediately assumed a belligerent

that no change should be made in the personnel of the Provisional Government without its sanction. Of this resolution Kerensky took no notice, for several days later, on October 4, he completely reorganized his Cabinet, appointing a number of Constitutional Democrats to portfolios, which was against the principle enunciated by



TYPES OF RUSSIAN PEASANTS

Courtesy of the Red Cross Magazine

attitude. Nor did he make a mistake in so assuming, for a strong animosity was shown toward him, visible in the lack of applause, the hissing of his remarks and the antagonistic remarks from various parts of the hall.

"You may hiss, my friends," he paused once, to remark, "but do not forget that a German fleet is sailing up the Baltic!"

THE ACTIONS AND RESOLUTIONS OF THE CONGRESS.

At a later session a resolution was passed by the Congress demanding

the Congress—that the Government should be exclusively Socialist. But three days later Kerensky weakened and arrived at a compromise with the Congress. The result was some further changes in the Cabinet in which the radicals were given more representation.

As a last act the Congress organized a body which was to serve as a temporary constituent assembly, to fill the interval until the real Constituent Assembly should be convened, some time in December. This body was called the

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Temporary Council of the Russian Republic. As a compromise the "non-democratic" elements were allowed certain representation in it. Further, the Temporary Council was invested with the right to act in an advisory capacity with the Government and with certain initiative powers.

THE BOLSHEVIKI OPPOSE THE GOVERNMENT OPENLY.

On October 20, the Temporary Council held its first meeting. Trotzky and a number of his associates had

now faced the "Bolsheviki of the Left," the real Bolsheviki, being fully convinced, as he was, that only all classes of Russian society together could save Russia from the enemy and from ruin. Already he realized that this second revolution, from the opposite direction, would not be so easily downed as had been the first. Foreign correspondents who saw him at this time reported him as careworn and obviously suffering from nervous exhaustion. And there was distinctly

a note of despair in the statement which he issued on November 1, through the Associated Press, to all the newspapers of the Entente countries and the United States.

"Russia has fought continuously since the beginning," he said. "She saved France and England from disaster in the early part of the war. She is worn out by the strain, and claims now that the chief weight of the burden should be borne by the Allies."

THE BOLSHEVIKI NOW RESORT TO ARMED FORCE.

Indeed, the new leaders in the Soviet were already at this time preparing the first steps toward the downfall of the Provisional Government. On being elected to the chairmanship of the Petrograd Soviet, Trotzky had immediately organized a "military committee of revolution." In the evening of November 4, 1917, representatives from this committee appeared at the staff office of the Petrograd

garrison and demanded the right of inspection and veto—that no orders should be given without the consent of the committee. This demand was flatly refused.

On November 7, 1917, an armed naval detachment, under orders from the Soviet revolutionary committee, suddenly appeared at the gates of the Marie Palace, where the Temporary Council was in session, and occupied the building by force of arms. Later



RUSSIAN PEASANTS AT HOME

By Courtesy of the Red Cross Magazine

been elected as members, though they had been strongly opposed to its creation. Nor had they any intention of participating in its deliberations, for as soon as he could obtain the floor, Trotzky rose and hurled a speech of fiery denunciation at the Government and at the Temporary Council itself.

KERENSKY ATTEMPTS TO OVERCOME THE BOLSHEVIKI.

As he had set himself against the "Bolsheviki of the Right," so Kerensky

similar action was taken in the building of the Smolny Institute and the Central Telegraph Agency.

THE SOLDIERS REFUSE TO OBEY THE GOVERNMENT.

Against this hostile action the Provisional Government was unable to offer any immediate resistance, for the troops of the garrison showed themselves indisposed to obey commands. On the other hand, the Bolsheviks also refrained from a too active manifestation of force, for within the Soviet there was still a strong minority in favor of compromising with the Provisional Government.

It was not till the forces of the Soviet appeared before the Winter Palace, the headquarters of the Provisional Government, that the first actual fighting took place. As the Bolsheviks approached, shots were fired from within the grounds of the building, and the attacking party immediately took shelter behind the piles of firewood which had been stacked in the square before the gates. From here they opened a steady fire at the windows of the Palace. The cruiser *Aurora*, whose crew had gone over entirely to the Soviet, drew up off the Palace and opened a desultory fire. About thirty of the military cadets defending the Palace were killed, and then, toward midnight, the rest surrendered.

KERENSKY AND HIS CABINET FLEE FROM PETROGRAD.

Kerensky and the majority of his Cabinet had meanwhile left Petrograd. Outside the city he encountered a small force of Cossacks under the command of General Krasnov, with which he attempted to return and suppress the rebellion. But the Cossacks themselves were naturally only half-heartedly in his favor, and on approaching the city began deliberating over the advisability of going over to the Bolsheviks. Kerensky then fled, and so disappeared from the arena of Russia's internal politics.

Kerensky had failed to save Russia though he had striven with all his might. Sincerely devoted to the welfare of his country he had given all his energy and strength to the reconciliation of opposites which could not be reconciled, grasping at the shadow and losing the substance. He believed in the power of words, and often talked when he should have acted. Toward the end of his power he was possessed by "delusions of grandeur" and rebuffed men who might have aided him in saving Russia. He failed, but whether any one else could have succeeded is improbable.

The Bolsheviks had acted according to a general plan, for the same acts of rebellion occurred in all the principal centres of Russia simultaneously. Almost everywhere this second revolution was peacefully and bloodlessly accomplished, except in Moscow, where the military cadets offered a determined resistance.

THE BOLSHEVIKI PROCEED TO FORM A GOVERNMENT.

Having gained control of Petrograd, the revolutionary committee of the Soviet immediately issued a proclamation, announcing the "dictatorship of the proletariat"—the advent of the "real revolution of the Russian people." The programme which they published enunciated the following points:

First—to open negotiations with all the belligerent states for the purpose of obtaining a democratic peace.

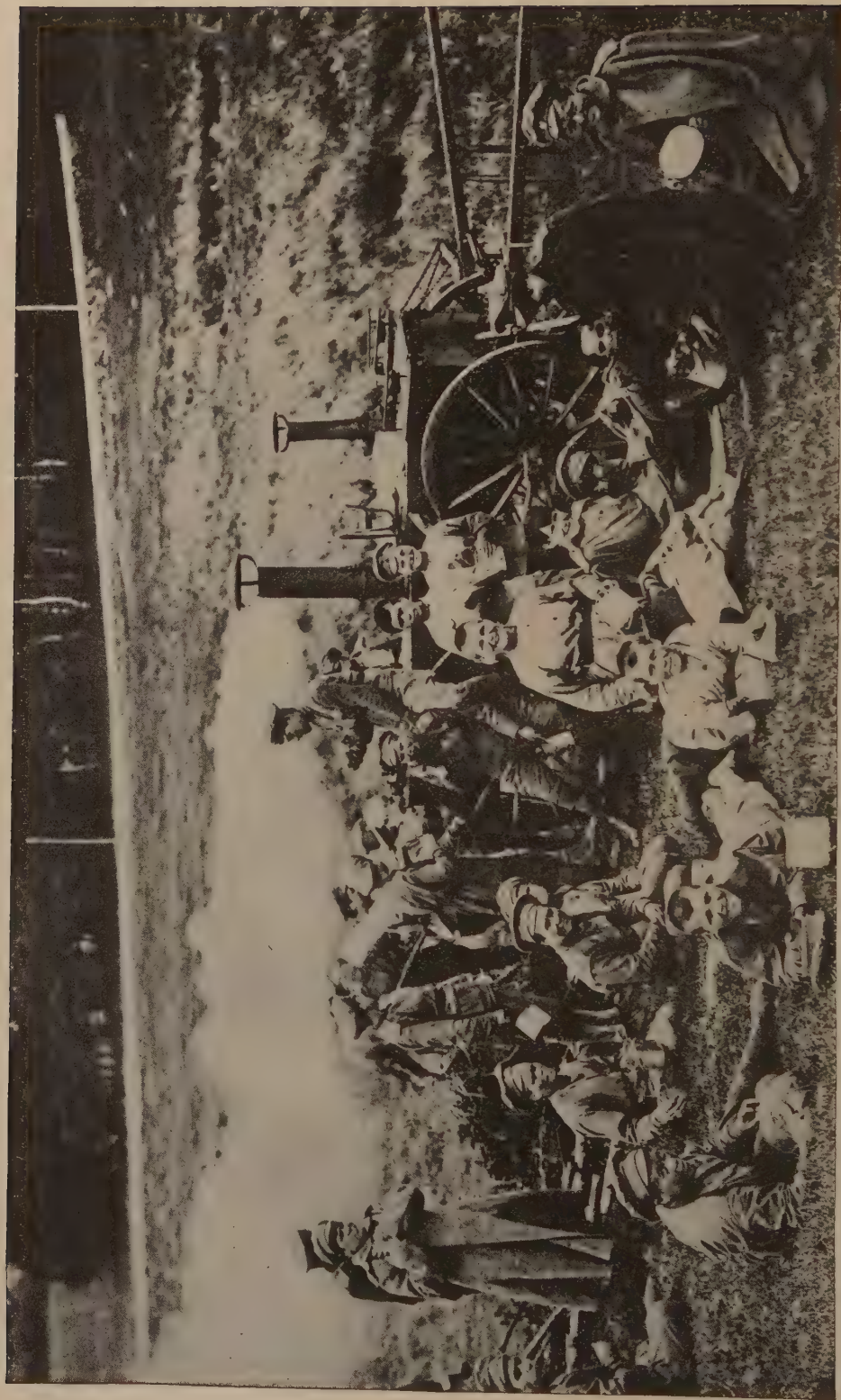
Second—to distribute land holdings among the peasants.

Third—recognition of the Soviet as the supreme power in the government of Russia.

Fourth—the convocation of a genuine Constituent Assembly, representing the Russian democracy.

On the following day another proclamation announced the formation of a new cabinet, of which Nikolai Lenin was Premier, and Leon Trotsky Minister of Foreign Relations.

ALBERT SONNICHSEN.



A DETACHMENT OF THE WOMAN'S BATTALION OF DEATH RESTING IN THE FIELD

By Courtesy of the Red Cross Magazine



Greek Destroyers Off the Piræus, the Port of Athens

CHAPTER XLIII

Greece and the War—The Venizelist Revolt

THE ATTEMPT OF KING CONSTANTINE TO ESTABLISH ABSOLUTISM IN A DEMOCRATIC LAND

GREECE lies in the pathway from Asia to Europe, and when East invaded West, and the Turk entered Europe, Greece became a subject nation for many centuries. Enslavement almost blotted out her previous history, and that any fraction of individuality and tradition survived is due to the fact that her mountain fastnesses and multitudinous islands preserved it from utter extinction. With the turn of the tide in the other direction in the nineteenth century, what was left of Greece began a new life in common with all the other subject races under Turkish rule in the Balkans.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY AND RUSSIA DESIRED WEAK BALKAN STATES.

The history of the wars against Turkey has been told in a previous chapter (Chapter IV). Who should take the Turk's place in the peninsula was a complicated problem. From the point of view of Austria or Russia it was advantageous to maintain a balance of power among the Balkan States that would be so nicely poised as to keep all the rivals engaged in maintaining its equilibrium. It was a menace to this balance of power when Bulgaria precipitated the second Balkan War, ending in the Treaty of Bucharest which left her so angry. Stripped of the Dobrudja by Rumania,

and of Macedonia by Greece and Serbia, Bulgaria bided her time. She had brought on the war herself rather than submit her claims in Macedonia to arbitration, but she felt that she had been over-punished and her services against the Turk under-recognized by the terms of the treaty. On the other hand, Serbia and Greece knew they had reason to fear Bulgaria and had a treaty of mutual support in case of Bulgarian aggression.

THE ALLIES SEEK TO WIN THE FAVOR OF BULGARIA.

Bulgaria was the pivot upon which the whole question of the Near East turned, and their mistaken attitude toward that country is the cause of the failure of the Allies in the Balkans. They thought to recast the Treaty of Bucharest and cut up Macedonia into slices, apportioning—with a fair consideration for racial distribution—slices of it among Serbia, Greece and Bulgaria, hoping to establish a united action of the Balkans against the Austro-Germanic League. Thus Serbia and Greece—their certain friends—were to be made to pay to placate Bulgaria—a possible enemy. So thinking, Allied diplomacy ignored two facts: the ambition of Bulgaria towards the hegemony of the peninsula, and her strongly developed Austro-Germanic leanings. But Serbia saw these

things and to Greece they were particularly distinct. When the Triple Entente pressed concessions to Bulgaria upon Greece and Serbia, an atmosphere of doubt was created in the Greek mind which the Central Powers were quick to foster by vigorous propaganda. Further, not content with blinding itself as to the signs of the times in Bulgaria, Allied diplomacy neglected all means of cultivating popular support in Greece, or of counteracting German propaganda. With the failure at the Dardanelles, the tragedy of Serbia, and the sacrifice of Rumania before her eyes, was it astonishing that Greece held back and hesitated to pay the debts of honor and of gratitude that she owed to Serbia and professed to Russia, England and France?

At the beginning of the war, popular sympathy had been with the Allies, for Greece and Serbia had been allies in the last war, Russia, France, and England had set Greece up as a nation, and their Premier, M. Venizelos, was popular and pro-ally. But the Greek Queen, Sophia, was the Kaiser's sister and she exercised a powerful influence with all members of the governing classes, and was moreover clever enough to take advantage of political divisions to aid the German cause. In the tangle there was only one man who in spite of Allied blunders saw and persisted in seeing that the cause of liberty must be that of Greece.

VENIZELOS THE GREATEST STATESMAN OF MODERN GREECE.

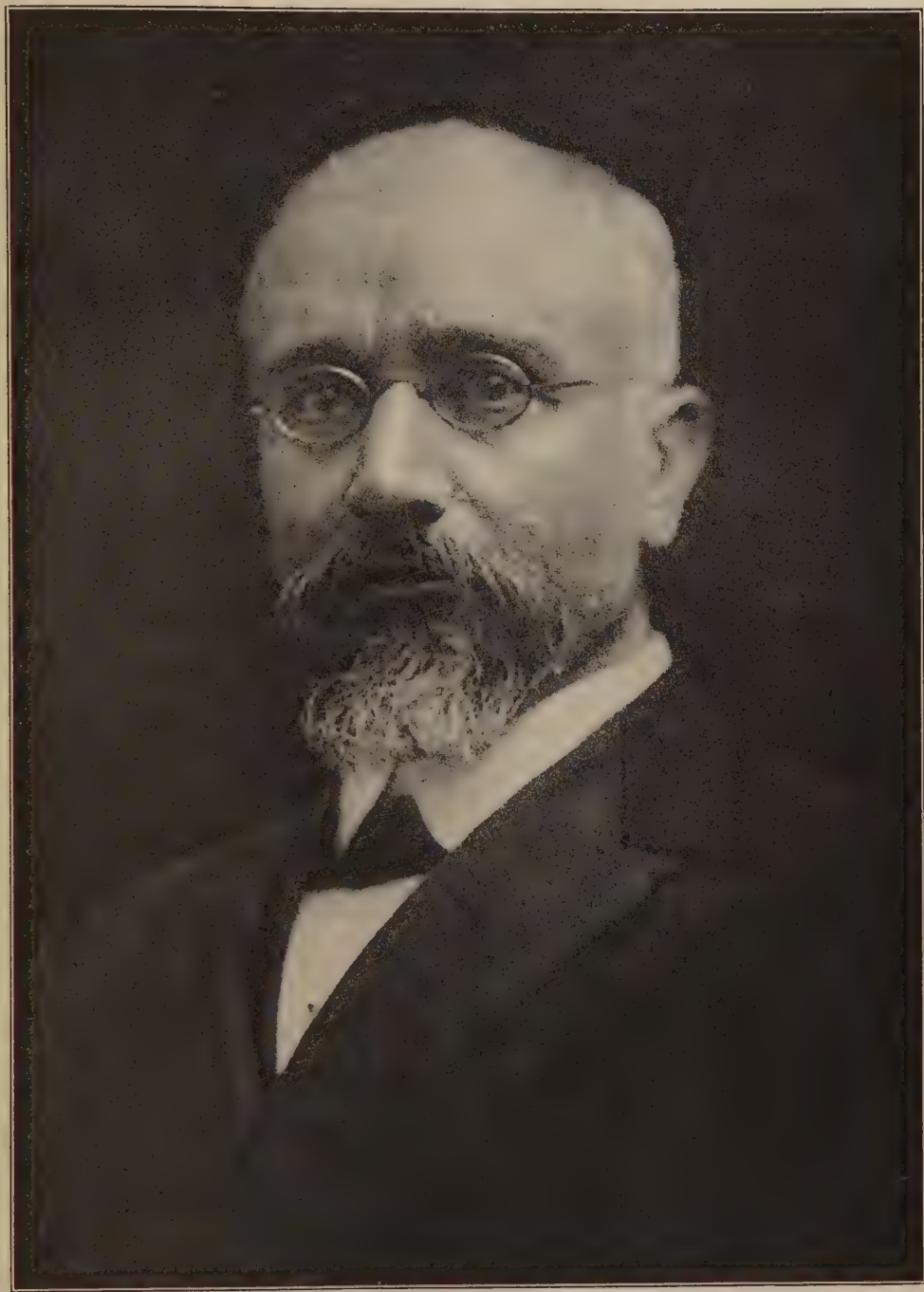
That man was Eleutherios Venizelos, premier of Greece and leader of the Liberal party. In 1864, in the little village of Murniaes on the island of Crete, was born the greatest statesman modern Greece has known. He was christened Eleutherios, meaning Liberty, and the name seems to have influenced his vocation in life through the years he struggled for the liberation of Hellas and to free Christendom from Prussian militarism. His father had first intended him to follow in his own steps as a merchant, but gave the boy a liberal education in the University of Athens, where he passed his

examinations brilliantly, and returned to Crete to practice as a lawyer. When only twenty-three he entered the Cretan Assembly and soon succeeded M. Mitsotakis as leader of the Liberal party. It seemed to be the Turkish policy to stir up factions among the population so as to involve them in internal political struggles. When strife flared into bloodshed in 1889, Turkey stepped in and took sanguinary reprisal. Again in 1895 revolution broke out, and in the following year Turkey laid more massacres to her account. At last the Greek government asked the Great Powers to intervene on behalf of their little neighbor, and through their concerted action for a time Crete had a measure of autonomy under the Sultan.

Self-government afforded little protection against the Turk, however, and when further massacres took place the Cretans proclaimed their union with Greece. Leaving his practice, Venizelos placed himself at the head of the insurgents who resisted the interference of the Great Powers with obstinate intrepidity until they were obliged to yield. In 1897, war, which the Powers had striven to avert, broke out between Greece and Turkey because of Crete. Greece was obliged to withdraw her forces from the island, and the Cretans were again forced to accept autonomy, though Venizelos and his supporters did so conditionally, claiming it was only a stage towards the national aim of final union with Greece.

THROUGH VENIZELOS CRETE BECOMES GREEK TERRITORY.

The Powers appointed as High Commissioner of the island Prince George, son of the King of Greece, and in 1898 he took over the reins of government. Time passed, however, the goal of union seemed no nearer, and administrative mistakes added to general dissatisfaction. A general rising at Therisso broke out in 1903. Venizelos led with the mountaineers their rough life and shared their fortunes until Prince George resigned in July, 1904. The rebels had taken a vow to recognize no ruler save one



M. ELEUTHERIOS VENIZELOS, GREEK PREMIER

The Greek premier whose meteoric career during recent years has astonished the world. A patriot, feeling the most sacred obligation to the Constitution and to the National Cause, he was for long styled a traitor and an adventurer by ungrateful fellow-countrymen. Not only had he to fight against a treacherous king and unscrupulous and self-seeking rivals, but he had to fight against them without open support from his natural friends. Patient and long-enduring, possessed of great vision and imagination, Venizelos could realize the difficulties of the Allied Powers as well as his own. In the bud he saw the triumph of his dreams: a Greece freed from tyranny and once more united, a Greece allied with those powers whose traditional ally she had always been.

appointed by the King of Greece, and so with the nomination of M. Zaimis, a former premier, brief tranquillity succeeded. The Young Turk revolution began in 1908, with a general loosening of authority in the Ottoman Empire. Austria took advantage of the time to annex Bosnia-Herzegovina, the Bulgarians asserted their complete independence, and on October 7, the fourteenth insurrection since 1830 broke out in Crete with the same object as heretofore—the union of the island with Greece. The government took an oath of fidelity to King George and chose a committee of six to govern the island in the name of the Hellenic King, but it was not until 1912, when Venizelos had left them, that the Cretans were formally annexed to Greece.

Two years before this the Cretan deputy had been summoned to Athens by the Military League which had been formed by the officers of the army in hopes of bringing about a better state of affairs in their country. General unrest, parliamentary slackness, governmental indifference and laxity of discipline were reacting upon the national life so that the country seemed dead. With the determination of breaking altogether with the past the Military League was formed and it hoped by recasting the laws to revive the nation. There had been no time to evolve a policy to fit the new situation, and it soon became evident that a leader with a matured political programme which he would apply without flinching, was imperative. In their need, the officers of the army who had served in Crete to organize the police, remembered Venizelos and sent for him.

THE GREEK CONSTITUTION REVISED AND REFORMS INTRODUCED.

The constitution was revised, legislative and administrative reforms were carried out, the *favlokratia* or "rule of the incompetent" done away with, and—greatest of all—the Balkan League brought about. Knowing that such a project must be supported by military preparedness, Venizelos directed improvements in army and navy,

and in May, 1912, when Greece held some grand manœuvres the Bulgarian and Serbian attachés were so much impressed by what they saw that soon after a treaty of alliance between the three powers was signed. As a consequence of Bulgaria's defeat in the Second Balkan War, and through M. Venizelos' influence in the Conference of Bucharest, the territory of Greece was much enlarged, and the population almost doubled. M. Hanotaux in "*La Guerre des Balkans et l'Europe*" thus sums up the benefits acquired by Greece, "If ever Pan-Hellenism felt on the point of realizing her dream it is at the present hour; Crete, the islands, Albania, Saloniki, the coast as far as Kavalla is a haul the consequences of which in the future can hardly be estimated. Greece seems to be the maritime heir of the Turkish Empire."

King Constantine (succeeding his father who was assassinated in Saloniki, March 18, 1913) was pleased to confer upon his Prime Minister the Grand Cross of the Order of the Saviour accompanied by a telegram: "I thank you for announcing the signing of peace. . . . You have deserved well of your country." One wonders if King Constantine and M. Venizelos remembered these last words when the time of exile for both came,—for the one a brief stay in Saloniki to be ended by a triumphant recall to Athens, for the other an indefinite sojourn in Switzerland, his future as closed in as the valleys before him.

VENIZELOS RESTORED AND STRENGTHENED THE DYNASTY.

The issue between King Constantine and his minister was never a personal one. When their ways of thought divided, the enemies of the Cretan patriot always sought to make out that Venizelos was anti-dynastic and anti-Constantine. On the contrary, when Venizelos was called upon to address the crowd in Athens in the early days of his premiership, he spoke of the Greek chamber as being revisionary in character. "Constituent!" shouted the frenzied crowd who blamed the royal house for all the evils from which the people suffered. "Revision-

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ary, I said," repeated M. Venizelos and waited calmly until the shouting died away and his qualification was accepted. Consistent with this declaration, too, was the manner in which he brought forward and exalted the throne on every possible occasion. In his opinion Greece was not ready for a democratic form of government but needed a dynasty, and the thing

GREECE ONE OF THE CHIEF HEIRS OF TURKEY.

With the outbreak of war and Turkey's entry into the conflict, all hope for the maintenance of Balkan peace vanished. Venizelos did not believe that Turkey would survive the struggle and sought means by which Greece could help the Allies in that part of the world. By reason of the reforms



CYPRUS, THIRD LARGEST ISLAND IN THE MEDITERRANEAN

In ancient times Cyprus supplied the Greek monarchs of Egypt with timber for their fleets. It was also celebrated for its copper which takes its name (cuprum) from the island. It is now bare of trees and little mining has been done in modern times. Cyprus belonged to the Ottoman Empire, but in 1878 passed under British control.

Picture from Henry Ruschin

to do was to strengthen the one that existed. He therefore neglected no opportunity to enhance the glory of Constantine.

Greece had shown her ability to live and go forward, and after 1913 Venizelos tackled the problem of extensive internal reforms. He needed a long peace for this, and even tried to revive the Balkan League, notwithstanding memories of the recent war. While Turkey was trying to exterminate the Greek population of the Ottoman Empire, M. Venizelos was seeking to reconcile the Greco-Turkish differences.

undertaken by the Liberal party the opposition, in the parliamentary sense of the word, had disappeared. The Liberal party was all-powerful, and the king could not dream of imposing his personal political views. It was entirely due to external events that the design to substitute personal for democratic government arose.

In another chapter the attitude of Greece towards the war during 1914 and 1915 has been outlined. Upon the outbreak of hostilities Venizelos used all his influence to have Greece join the Allies. Constantine took the

stand that so long as Bulgaria remained neutral and the Balkan equilibrium created by the Treaty of Bucharest was not upset, Greece would remain neutral. Early in 1915 the Triple Entente decided to embark upon the Dardanelles campaign, and became eager to secure Greece's help to hold Bulgaria in check, and to secure bases of operation in the neighborhood. Accordingly, Greece was offered concessions on the coast of Asia Minor in return for the co-operation of her fleet, and the use of a single division of her army. The territorial concessions would include regions of Greek colonies and strengthen her hold upon the islands.

THE GREEK GENERAL STAFF OPPOSES THE GALLIPOLI PROJECT.

These reasons together with his firm conviction that Greece should stand beside her former allies caused M. Venizelos to press earnestly for intervention. But the opinion of the Greek General Staff condemned the enterprise, and when the king refused to agree with M. Venizelos, the latter resigned in March, 1915. He was succeeded at once by M. Gounaris who, without dissolving the Chamber, announced a policy of strict neutrality. In April, M. Gounaris was approached by the Entente with a request that Greece should make war upon Turkey. Gounaris submitted proposals which the Allied governments allowed to fall through, and Gounaris turned, rebuffed, towards the pro-Germans and began to create an anti-Venizelist party. Constantine was ill and did not interfere by word or deed even when his minister dissolved the legislative body, headed a furious campaign against the Venizelist candidates for the coming elections, and told the electors that they must choose between Constantine and his minister, neutrality or hazardous intervention. Many new seats were thus won by the government but when the returns were declared in June, the Liberal party had a majority, 184 against 130. Still Gounaris held office, giving as a pretext that during the king's illness things must continue as they were, and the

ministerial press did not cease to calumniate Venizelos. Finally Venizelos was recalled in August.

At this point it is well to estimate the strength of the opposition arrayed against the former premier. The king himself had received his military education in Germany and was possessed with the greatest admiration for the Prussian military machine. Of his military advisers, General Dousmanis and Colonel Metaxas, the former was violently anti-French and bureaucratic, and the latter, like the king himself, a brilliant product of the Berlin *Kriegs-akademie*. Queen Sophia, of course, had her own special instructions from William II of Germany as to the course she should pursue in her native country's interests, though her influence was more marked in the creation of a pro-German environment at court and in the government than in its direct action upon her husband.

KING CONSTANTINE BELIEVED GERMAN TO BE UNCONQUERABLE.

The royal mind seems to have believed at this time that only an indecisive peace could be reached in Europe, and that, therefore, it would pay to maintain neutrality to the end. It inclined to the Austro-Germanic Powers as a shield against the Slav from without and a protection against an inconvenient development of democracy from within. We have not all the inside history of Teutonic intrigue, but it is probable that Constantine and William II met in July, 1915. The attack upon Serbia in the autumn was outlined to the Greek king and Bulgaria's complicity foreshadowed, Greece must remain quiescent or she would share in the Serbian disaster, but the price of her non-intervention would secure territorial integrity. Unfortunately the Triple Entente chose this very season to press the question of concessions to Bulgaria.

In continued blindness, Entente diplomacy still affected to believe that Bulgaria might be bought with the spoil of Macedonia, but Bulgaria had entered into a secret treaty with Berlin, Vienna and Constantinople in July, and between the 14th and 20th of Septem-

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ber, she signed a further treaty with Turkey. On September 21, after the German advance upon Serbia had begun, M. Venizelos, believing that his country in the terms of her alliance with Serbia must enter the fray, asked the Allies for 150,000 men, and on the 23rd of the month asked the king for an order of general mobilization of the Greek army. It is probable that Bul-

assistance, and if in this action she found herself brought face to face with powerful nations he was certain that Greece would do her duty. A vote of confidence was carried by an effective majority of 46, and pro-German activities seemed frustrated. At this juncture Constantine violated the Greek constitution and began his course of substituting personal for democratic



ATHENS FROM THE ACROPOLIS

The central point of the ancient city was the Acropolis: the modern city lies almost entirely to the north and east between the Acropolis and Mount Lycabettas, and along the west slope of the latter. The temple and the other buildings on the Acropolis were destroyed by the Persians (480-479 B. C.) and never entirely rebuilt.

Ruschin

garia took the first steps toward mobilization on September 21, though her formal order was not dated until the 23rd.

THE KING'S PARTY BEGINS TO WORK AGAINST VENIZELOS.

This step was as far as the king and his premier went together; at this point a vigorous royalist programme of resistance was set on foot by the Gounarists, the staff officers, the paid agents of Germany, by Queen Sophia and the king's brothers. When the chamber met, Venizelos in an impassioned speech declared that Greece was in honor bound to go to Serbia's

government. Summoning M. Venizelos to the palace he informed him that he had gone beyond his rights and demanded his resignation, October 5. Then in face of popular elections and the vote of the Chamber, Constantine took the helm of state into his own hands. M. Zaïmis was again appointed premier and proclaimed a policy of "benevolent neutrality." We know now that Constantine had already secretly assured Bulgaria that Greece would not aid Serbia.

It is easy to be wise after the event; had the Allies in this crisis made some

forceful demonstration in favor of the interventionists and offered vigorous resistance to the royalist party, the forces which were just landing in Saloniki would have had a different record of achievement, and it is even possible that the tragedies of Serbia and Rumania might have been avoided. As it was, they did nothing. In the meantime the French forces, on the invitation of Venizelos, landed at Saloniki and were met by a formal protest. The need of help for Serbia was the more urgent through Constantine's treachery. When M. Zaimis formed his government on October 7th he did not at first take open stand against the Venizelist policy, and for that reason the Liberal majority promised its support. But the inertia of the Triple Entente and the fine scrupulousness of M. Venizelos left the king a free hand, and, master of the staff and of the army, he felt himself in a position to resist parliamentary pressure. His praises were sung in a tone almost of adoration by a chorus of journalists richly bribed by Baron Schenck, who had come to Greece originally to sell Krupp guns and had remained to buy Greek honor. The way lay open for dictatorship, and on October 13th, M. Zaimis by Constantine's orders notified Serbia that Greece could not enter the war against Germany and Austria-Hungary.

THE ENTENTE MAKES ANOTHER BID FOR GREEK ASSISTANCE.

The gage was flung; Serbia did not dare to break off diplomatic relations with her one-time ally. The Entente tried to buy Greek support of Serbia by offering Cyprus. The Greek Chamber protested against the action of the government by adopting the programme of the Liberal party by 147 votes against 114, declaring the declarations of the government unsatisfactory, and censuring the conduct of the Minister of War. But Constantine had prepared the way; the Allies' offer was coolly declined, as other and more alluring promises were in his mind, and he there and then proceeded to lay the fabric of absolutism within the country. The Chamber

which had voted against him he dissolved, the minister who had failed to win the opposition he dismissed, and nominated in his place M. Skouloudis, whom he charged with the formation of a Cabinet that was strongly royalist in tone and which Constantine intended to be both tool and screen in his personal government.

While the king was thus building up royal despotism within the country, in other parts of the peninsula things were going ill with the Allied cause. The overwhelming disaster that fell upon Serbia and the ineffective campaign of the Saloniki contingent are all told in another chapter (Chapter XXII). Their effects upon the popular mind were considerable. The royalists could affirm that Serbia's fate would have been that of Greece had she intervened when the Allies wished; Bulgaria no longer loomed large and menacing in the public eye, for she had food for her rapacity. But the Allied occupation of Saloniki was used to irritate national pride, and all the time the grip upon the Venizelist press grew daily more strangling until one by one the papers either dropped off and suspended publication altogether, or went over to the ministerial side.

THE SUPPORTERS OF VENIZELOS REFRAIN FROM VOTING.

There was no election campaign; M. Venizelos requested his friends not to run for office and advised the electors not to vote. As a matter of fact, half of the voters were under arms, including fifty-three Venizelist deputies, and though the government was ready to give furloughs to its supporters it withheld them from its opponents. The June total of voters had been 750,000, the December election only showed 200,000. Constantine meant this Chamber—so unrepresentative and so packed—merely to serve the purpose of a screen for his unconstitutional acts: he relied on his military council almost entirely and used the Cabinet only as their tool. Through his military council he began the Germanization of the army. The leaders of the army needed little encouragement in this project.

THE GREEK COMMANDER OF FORT RUPEL SURRENDERS BY ORDER.

In spite of Skouloudis' advertised "benevolent neutrality" towards the Triple Entente he announced his intention of disarming soldiers who might be driven back on Greek soil, and a threatening note, a partial blockade, and a painful discussion were necessary in November to force him to remove this menace to the rear of the Saloniki force. Finally, when some of the escaping Serbians took refuge upon Greek soil the ill-treatment they suffered contained no measure of benevolence. To guard against this ill-will, Allied warships on January 10, 1916, seized Corfu and prepared relief for such Serbians as had taken refuge on the Albanian coast. Later in April when these same Serbians—refreshed and reformed—desired to rejoin the Allies in Saloniki, M. Skouloudis offered objection after objection to their passing over Greek soil. The movement of the Serbians seems to have alarmed Bulgaria also, for on the 23rd of May a column of Germano-Bulgarians advanced over the border to Fort Rupel in the Demir-Hissar Pass and summoned the Greek garrison to surrender. Slight resistance was offered, but in the night the Greek troops received an order to withdraw and the incident was explained in the Athenian Chamber as a concession to neutrality!

There was instant reaction from two directions. The Allied uneasiness at this threat to their right flank, and the evident co-operation of the Skouloudis Cabinet and the king with the Bulgarians, caused them to send a landing force to the Bay of Salamis. In Athens the population rose, protesting that Greek interests had been sold to the Germans since the detested Bulgarians were allowed to occupy the sacred soil of Greece. Nevertheless, the royal programme continued. At the end of May, General Yannakitsas warned his troops that they must be prepared to fight, and the king in an address to the men stated that as soldiers they should be obedient to orders and not to sentiments. It seemed as if the stream were

at last flowing as William II and Constantine had desired. Athenian hooligans incited by German money demonstrated against the English and French legations with the apparent approval of the Chief of Police. On the 21st, the Entente struck hard; they presented an ultimatum which contained four demands:

1. Immediate demobilization of the Greek army.
2. The dismissal of the Skouloudis Cabinet, and its replacing by a business cabinet without bias.
3. The dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies to be followed by free elections, when demobilization was complete.
4. A change in the police force whereby certain individuals known to be in the Austro-German pay were to lose their places.

THE TERMS OF THE ALLIES ARE RELUCTANTLY MET.

When this note was delivered, British and French warships appeared before the Piræus and a practical blockade was established. Awed at last by this show of force and energy, Constantine submitted for the moment, allowed M. Skouloudis to be put out and recalled M. Zaïmis who, on June 23rd, accepted the ultimatum. Six days later general demobilization of the army was ordered, and by the end of July it was on a peace footing. Yet once again, cunning robbed the movement of its salutary effects by creating among the returned soldiers in their own homes Reservists' Leagues whose object was the defense of their king. The Chamber was not dissolved—merely adjourned, and still pro-Entente newspapers were prosecuted. Baron Schenck and other German agitators continued their work. In those times the life of Venizelos was threatened, but he continued to conduct vigorously an electoral campaign. Constantine at the bidding of his imperial brother-in-law was playing for time, and finally, to postpone the elections from which the Venizelists were hoping so much, contrived the invasion of Eastern Macedonia by the Germano-Bulgarian forces.

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During June and July the military situation at Saloniki had not changed from the deadlock which had begun in December, 1915, after the withdrawal into the zone around the city. An Allied offensive was planned to take place early in August by which it was hoped to influence the Greek elections in favor of the Liberal party and intervention and also to occupy the attention of Bulgaria on her southern boundary so that Rumania, already secretly committed to the Allies, might have freedom to complete her mobilization. Accordingly, on August 10, an advance against Doiran was undertaken by the Allied forces. Suddenly the scene changed; Bulgaria had cognizance of the advance and meant to strike first. Where her advance was met by Serbian or Allied troops it was checked, but in Eastern Macedonia the Bulgarians advanced and occupied the cities of Kavalla, Seres, Doxata and Drama, together with what amounted to a whole province. The Greek troops were ordered by the government not to resist the Bulgarian advance, and submitted without striking a blow to being carried away and transported to Germany. The Hellenic Government had admitted the invaders as guests, so to speak, and promises had been made to maintain the local administration and safeguard the security and tranquility of the inhabitants.

THE BULGARS COMMIT MANY EXCESSES IN EASTERN MACEDONIA.

Nevertheless, only a few days after their entry into Greek territory they gave themselves up to excesses and devastations of every sort. Instead of maintaining the local Greek authorities for any period of time the administration was entrusted to well-known *Comitadjis* upon whom the Bulgarian government had conferred military rank, or to Greek officials who had been corrupted. Their authority was that of brigands and criminals as the Report of the Greek University Commission upon Atrocities and Devastations clearly proves. Nor was this vandalism merely the result of Greco-Bulgarian jealousy. It had the definite purpose

of clearing Eastern Macedonia of its Greek population by famine, by outrage, by torture, by deportation, and by murder. It is anticipating history only a little to add that when Greece entered the war the persecution in Macedonia became even more cruel. Deportations of public employees and later of all persons between the ages of 15 and 60 years were made for the purpose of supplying Bulgaria with labor for building strategic roads and the work in the fields. Privation and maltreatment took fearful toll of these wretched victims so that the figures of the report show that more than four-fifths (at least 70,000 persons) succumbed to the savagery of their enemies. Thus was a province of Greece betrayed by its king who had based his policy of neutrality upon a condition of territorial integrity; who had accepted the guarantees of his country's hereditary enemies that they would respect the lives, liberty and property of his subjects.

This was a severe blow to Constantine's prestige; and a vigorous movement of protest at once took place in Athens and other large cities. Before the house of M. Venizelos an immense crowd gathered to cheer for the chief of the Liberal party. To them the ex-premier proposed that they should elect a delegation which should submit to the king an appeal that he had prepared. He read it to them and the great concourse approved it enthusiastically.

THE GREEKS IN SALONIKI RISE IN REVOLT.

All was in vain. King Constantine refused to receive the deputation, alleging illness, and on the same ground delayed the dissolution of the Chamber and the elections. But he could not stay the march of events which in the next few weeks came thick and fast. The Bulgarian invasion had harmed the royal cause seriously in that it had cut in two the army—hitherto his greatest asset. On August 30, a revolution broke out in Saloniki. The insurgents were Cretan gendarmerie and Macedonian volunteers; a Committee of National Defense was formed under

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Colonel Zymbracakis who addressed a proclamation to the people inciting them "to cease to obey the authorities who had betrayed the national honor," and exhorting the army to deliver the fatherland.

After some disorder General Sarraill interfered to save bloodshed and the troops of the 5th Division quartered at Saloniki either joined the Committee

THE DEPOSITION OF THE KING IS SERIOUSLY DISCUSSED.

King Constantine experienced great difficulty in finding a successor. He sent for M. Dimitracopoulos intending to form an ordinary political ministry, but the latter, when he found that the Allies still insisted upon compliance with their note of June 21, resigned at once. Then the king had recourse to



MEMBERS OF THE GREEK ROYAL FAMILY

To the right is Prince Alexander who succeeded his father. He is three years younger than the ex-Crown Prince George, who together with his three sisters and Prince Paul, accompanied his parents into exile. Embarked for Italy, they had not yet reached the residence of their choice when their hopes were dashed, and they had to slip out of Lugano en route for Switzerland amidst manifestations of public scorn.

Ruschin

or were disarmed. Those officers who resigned were allowed to go to Athens where the king received and congratulated them. Franco-British warships appeared off the Piræus on September 1, and demanded the dismissal of Baron Schenck and his followers, the immediate disbanding of Reservist Leagues, and control of all communications. On the 10th, the Reservists demonstrated against the French Legation and on the 11th, the premier, helpless against the forces of anarchy breaking out all over the country, resigned. He had never been strong enough to rule Greece.

M. Nicholas Calogeropoulos, a member of the Germanophile coterie who proceeded to form a ministry of second-rate men of noted anti-Venizelist tendencies. To this ministry the Allies refused recognition although M. Calogeropoulos published his intention of complying with their note. On September 20, Constantine addressed some 5,000 young infantry recruits in a spirit of pure absolutism, informing them that they were "soldiers of the king owing blind devotion to the will of the king." On the 22nd, a battalion of the Greek revolutionary army at Saloniki left for the front to fight against the

Bulgars. Two days later the Congress of Hellenic Colonies, assembled in Paris, declared the deposition of King Constantine. Early next morning M. Venizelos and Admiral Coundouriotis set sail from Phalerum for Crete—the revolution had begun.

In a statement published before he left, the Cretan patriot reviewed the injuries suffered by Greek honor, and added, "Do not think I am heading a revolution in the ordinary sense of the word. The movement now beginning is in no way directed against the king or his dynasty. This movement is one made by those of us who can no longer stand aside and let our countrymen and our country be ravaged by the Bulgarian enemy. It is the last effort we can make to induce the king to come forth as King of the Hellenes and follow the path of duty in the protection of his subjects."

THE ISLANDS ARE FIRST TO RISE IN REVOLT.

At the same time manifestoes came in to the king from many of the islands, Mytilene, Samos, Chios, demanding intervention, and over seventy Anti-Venizelist deputies and some prominent army officers urged the king to enter the war. The revolution in Crete was so decided that in ten days the insurgents to the number of 30,000 had complete possession. M. Venizelos was received with enthusiasm at Canea by the people and the troops and he issued a proclamation reviewing the disorder which had resulted from the fatal policy of the king during the last year and a half. Immediately adherents flocked to the cause. In all the larger islands royal officials were replaced by Venizelists, from Athens itself many officers and men set sail for Saloniki, the Congress of Hellenic Colonies sent their assurance of support "on the path of honor and glory," the Committee of National Defense placed itself at the disposal of the movement. On the last day of September a triumvirate consisting of Venizelos, Coundouriotis and Danglis was formed to direct the National Movement towards the forming of a Provisional Government.

Meanwhile, unrecognized and inef-

fective, the Calogeropoulos Cabinet felt bound to resign, and King Constantine then called to the head of the government Professor Spyridon P. Lambros who proceeded to form a service Cabinet in accordance with the Allied note. That same day, October 9, Venizelos in Saloniki amid scenes of wildest enthusiasm established the Provisional Government "with full authority to organize the forces of the country with the object of joining the Allies and fighting by their side against all their enemies."

HEAVIER ALLIED DEMANDS ARE MADE UPON GREECE.

Afterwards a conference called by the Entente at Boulogne gave the revolutionary government a qualified recognition. Only in the Peloponnesus and in Athens did the king's cause seem to prosper, and the Allies were laying increasingly heavy demands as a precaution against treason, for it was suspected that there was a royalist plot afoot to send forces to Thessaly to co-operate with a German army in an attack upon Saloniki. Early in October Admiral Dartige du Fournet presented an ultimatum demanding that Greece should hand over the Greek fleet entire, save for the armored cruiser Averoff and the battleships Lemnos and Kilkis, by 1 o'clock of the 11th, and even the vessels retained were to be disarmed and their crews reduced to one-third, while the forts on the seacoast must be dismantled and the two commanding the moorings turned over to the Admiral. At the same time the Allies took control of the police and demanded that Greek citizens be prohibited from carrying arms, that the sending of war munitions to Thessaly be stopped, and that the embargo on the exportation of Thessalian wheat should be raised.

A period of suspense and delay followed. The royalists put off fulfilment of the conditions prescribed and, encouraged by their success in evasion and the Bulgarian victories in Rumania, grew more and more insolent, while the nation in general, because it was ignorant of the king's German intrigues but felt the effects of block-

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ade and of the Allied demands, grew more anti-Entente. On account of a slight collision between royalist and nationalist troops on the frontier, General Sarraïl and the Greek Government established the Neutral Zone between the territories of the Provisional Government and Old Greece, but it is all of a piece with Entente diplomacy in the Near East that Thessaly and Epirus, which devoted to Venizelos were only waiting the appearance of Saloniki contingents to rise, were thus prevented from doing so. On the 17th of November Admiral Dartige sent M. Lambros a new note demanding the surrender of eighteen field batteries, sixteen mountain batteries with a thousand rounds of projectiles per battery, as well as of 4000 Mannlicher rifles, 140 machine-guns and 50 automobile trucks, to make up for the war material which it had surrendered to the Bulgarians in August. Three days later the diplomatic representatives of the Central Powers were ordered to leave Greece, and on the 22nd an ultimatum demanding the cession of ten mountain batteries before the 1st of December and the rest before the 15th was delivered to the Greek Government. Athens seethed with excitement, especially when it was learned that the Venizelos government had declared war on Bulgaria and Germany.

KING CONSTANTINE HOPES TO AROUSE POPULAR SENTIMENT.

By December 1, nothing had been done towards surrendering the guns and Admiral Dartige after an interview with King Constantine went away with the impression that a show of force was all that was necessary to bring about compliance, and that no resistance was contemplated. It is evident now that the king was luring the Allies to their own destruction by causing them to formulate and enforce demands irritating to the popular pride, and influencing them to defeat their own ends by neutralizing the efforts of the Venizelists by the creation of the Neutral Zone. On the night of the 29th the troops of the garrison of Athens left their barracks and took

up position in the environs of the city, and a decree was published authorizing voluntary engagements.

The military authorities were ordered not to hinder the Allies in disembarking but to follow them in equal numbers and to prevent the execution of the Admiral's commands. As Anglo-French detachments advanced from the sea along the roads to Athens the Greek soldiers blocked their way and opened fire. The landing forces, unprepared for resistance, suffered cruel losses. All through that day the fighting continued for through lack of preliminary arrangements the Allied fleet remained almost inert. Only a few shells were fired into the garden of the Grand Palace. Finally, on December 2, at 2 A. M. in the morning, the king proposed to surrender six mountain batteries instead of ten, and the Allied troops withdrew from the city. The day was spent by the Royalists in hunting out the Venizelists whom they massacred, tortured and imprisoned, and also destroyed newspaper offices of the Liberal press.

THE KING AND HIS PARTY YIELD TO SUPERIOR FORCE.

On December 7, the Entente announced a blockade of the Greek coasts, and on the 14th presented a note ordering complete demobilization of the army, restoration of control by the Allies over posts, telegraphs and railways and the release of the Venizelists who had been imprisoned; failing compliance, the Allied Ministers were instructed to leave Greece and a state of war would begin. The Greek government thus found itself compelled to choose between peace and war and accepted the ultimatum, but true to its nature, began to quibble about the construction of the terms. On the 31st, a Second Allied Note was delivered, containing their demands for military guarantees and for reparation for the events of the 1st and 2nd of December, but agreeing not to allow the Venizelist troops to profit by the withdrawal of Royalist troops, or to pass over the Neutral Zone. The Greek government objected to certain provisions, especially that referring

to the immediate release of the Venizelists, but on January 9, the Allies answered the protest by giving forty-eight hours in which to comply.

This ultimatum was drafted by the Allied War Council, then sitting in Rome, and was due to the decision of Premiers Lloyd George and Briand to enforce fresh vigor in the handling of the Greek situation. An important development was that Italy now came into full agreement with Great Britain, France and Russia, in regard to the whole course of action in the Balkan Peninsula. Shrewd as ever, the king recognized that he had reached the limit of Allied patience and he accordingly accepted their terms. The transfer of Greek troops to the Peloponnesus as demanded in the Note began, and on January 24, the Greek government formally apologized to the Allied Ministers, and in front of the Zappeion the flags of the Entente were solemnly saluted.

THE UNDIGNIFIED ALLIED DIPLOMACY KEPT GREECE NEUTRAL.

The Allied diplomatic quibbling, undignified and unworthy though it seems, yet succeeded in keeping Greece neutral. An attack from the rear on Saloniki was held suspended as long as Constantine did not openly join with the Central Powers. Furthermore, it must be remembered that the Allies were hampered in their actions in that they were by no means united in their views of the situation. Italy disliked Venizelos, because she feared the increase of Greek power in the Mediterranean, and imperial Russia branded him as revolutionary. So he was to some extent blocked by the temporizing of the Allies with Constantine and his advisers. Yet he held on to his purpose, ready to change his means as the occasion demanded. "I have tried," he said, "not to cause any difficulties for my friends. I am told to evacuate Katerini—I evacuate Katerini. I am told to abandon Cerigo—I abandon Cerigo. The Neutral Zone is imposed on me, I respect the Neutral Zone. I am asked to bring my movement to a standstill—I bring it to a standstill."

Thus a seeming peace lay over Greece in the opening months of 1917, but it was false and hollow. Constantine and M. Lambros were employing every artifice to avoid the execution of the conditions laid down by the Entente. "Soldiers transported to the Peloponnesus made their way back again in citizen's dress or on military leave of absence; lies were told about the contents of cases of weapons, and arms were cached in the earth. Meanwhile, the Royalist newspapers invented calumny on calumny against the Allies," and as these were the only newspapers that did appear the public was kept in an abnormal state of ferment by the organs of King Constantine.

GREATER UNITY NOW APPEARS IN THE ALLIED COUNCILS.

In the third week in March the Briand Cabinet resigned in France and was succeeded by the Ribot ministry which promised stronger handling of the Greek situation. At the same time revolution broke out in Russia, and Constantine lost valuable support. In April the United States entered the war, taking up the sword against absolutism and autocracy. "The ground began to fail beneath the feet of the slayer of Venizelists, the constitutional king who had been transformed by the grace of William II into the Lord's Anointed, accountable to God alone." Throughout the months of April and May one by one the Venizelist journals appeared, more of the Ionian Islands gave in their adherence to the Provisional Government, and rumor filled the court of Athens with uneasiness. M. Lambros resigned and on May 3, the ineffective but respectable M. Zaïmis took upon himself the prime ministry once more. General dissatisfaction with King Constantine's rule was spreading throughout Greece. The end of May saw Venizelos with 60,000 men at his command. Thereafter things moved swiftly. On June 3, the Italians proclaimed the independence of Albania, and occupied Janina, thus cutting the last line of communication open between Athens and the Central Powers.

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THE ALLIES DEMAND THE ABDICATION OF KING CONSTANTINE.

On June 6 M. Charles Jonnart, a French senator invested with the rank of High Commissioner of the protecting powers, arrived in Greek waters. A great movement of Allied warships in the bay of Salamis, and the Saronic and Corinthian Gulfs took place. From Salamis the High Commissioner

palace, and a deputation headed by Naval Commander Mavromichaelis was received by Constantine and pledged the devotion of the army and the people to his cause. On the day following, that is, June 12, M. Zaïmis communicated the king's decision in these words:

"The Minister and High Commissioner of France, Great Britain and



THE DOWNFALL OF AUTOCRACY

A French sentinel on guard in Athens on the day that King Constantine and his family departed. Though disorder was expected none came for the reason that while M. Jonnart's proclamation strove to allay uneasiness, yet it promised, on the other hand, severe action against any who broke the peace. Allied warships in the Gulf, and Allied troops in the capital did much to make the change pass off quietly.

sailed to Saloniki. On the 10th he returned and on the 11th the blow fell. He summoned M. Zaïmis to his warship and in the name of the three protecting powers demanded the abdication of King Constantine and the nomination of his successor, with the exclusion of the Crown Prince. M. Jonnart informed the Premier that he had troops at his disposal but would not land them until King Constantine had given his answer. A Crown Council consisting of former premiers was summoned, and a hue and cry filled the streets of Athens; 2,000 Reservists formed a cordon of defense around the

Russia: Having demanded by your note of yesterday the abdication of his Majesty, King Constantine, and the nomination of his successor, the undersigned, Premier and Foreign Minister, has the honor to inform your Excellency that his Majesty the King, ever solicitous for the interests of Greece, has decided to leave the country with the Prince Royal, and nominates Prince Alexander as his successor."

ZAIMIS.

THE KING PROMPTLY YIELDS TO THE INEVITABLE.

The following day two royal proclamations were posted in the streets;

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the first that of ex-King Constantine read:

"Obeying the necessity of fulfilling my duty towards Greece, I am departing from my beloved country with the heir to the throne and am leaving my son Alexander my crown. I beg you to accept my decision with calm, as the slightest incident may lead to a great catastrophe."

The second proclamation was from the new king declaring he would follow in the steps of his illustrious father—a determination for which he was required to apologize and declare his willingness to respect the constitution. At the same time military measures were being taken by the Allies in Thessaly which are fully described in another chapter. On June 13, the ex-king and his family embarked at the Piræus on a British warship for his summer palace at Tatoi, and the next morning started from thence for Italy, whither one of his private secretaries had preceded him to look for a large villa suitable for the exiled royalties.

THE ALLIED EXPLANATION AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE ACTION.

M. Jonnart, who had brought about his deposition, published a note to the Greek people explaining the stand taken by France, Great Britain, and Russia who "are here to checkmate the manœuvres of the hereditary enemies of the kingdom. They will put an end to the repeated violations of the Constitution, of treaties, and the deplorable intrigues which led up to the massacre of soldiers of the Allies." After outlining the overthrow of German influence in Athens the proclamation closes: "Hellenes, the hour of recon-

ciliation has arrived. Your destinies are closely associated with those of the protecting powers, your ideals are the same as theirs, your hopes are identical.

"Today the blockade is raised. Any reprisal against Greeks, to whatever party they belong, will be pitilessly repressed. No breach of the peace will be tolerated. The liberty and prosperity of everyone will be safeguarded. This is a new era of peace and labor which is opening before you. Know that, respectful of the national sovereignty, the protecting powers have no intention of forcing upon the Greek people general mobilization. Long live Greece, united and free!"

VENIZELOS RETURNS TO ATHENS TO TAKE UP HIS TASKS.

In the absence of Constantine, M. Venizelos started for Athens and on the 19th of June a committee of four was appointed, consisting of two representatives of the Athenian government and two of the Saloniki government to consider methods of reconstruction. In less than a week M. Venizelos was called upon to form a cabinet and set about the laborious task of building up again that which King Constantine had destroyed. In July Greece formally declared war against Bulgaria and the German Empire. When "the vision and the fact, the poetry and prose of life find a rare union in a single soul, they provide a combination which in the long run is as irresistible as the forces of Nature." By his superhuman patience, no less than by his ardent patriotism, Venizelos, in spite of the Allies, had saved Greece from going down into the abyss of self-destruction.



A Squadron of Cossacks Passing in Review

CHAPTER XLIV

Military Operations During the Russian Revolution

THE PROGRESSIVE DEMORALIZATION OF THE ARMY AND THE NAVY DURING THE YEAR

AFTER the heavy activities which resulted in the conquest of Rumania, the fighting which occurred along the Russian fronts was of a purely local character for many months. During the fall of 1916 the Austro-Germans had developed unexpected strength and the Russian government had deliberately utilized the Rumanians as a shock absorber. Therefore, the Russian armies had not suffered so severely as they might otherwise have done.

THE RUSSIAN MILITARY LEADERS LOYAL TO THE ALLIES.

As stated elsewhere in this volume, there could be no doubt as to the loyalty and the patriotism of the fighting generals at the front. Though they suppressed expression of their opinions in public, according to military ethics, there could be no doubt that they were in sympathy with those loyal Russians who were represented in the Duma by what was known as the "Progressive Bloc."

When Rodzianko, President of the Duma, sent his telegrams to the army commanders along the front announcing that the Duma had defied the Government, on March 11, the army commanders were inclined to accept the situation hopefully, for with the

Duma in full control there was a new possibility of bringing the united effort of the whole people to bear in support of the military operations against the enemy. Protopopov's interference with the social organizations which were working behind the lines had turned the military commanders bitterly against him and, incidentally, the autocracy he represented. When the Provisional Government was finally established in Petrograd and recognized by the whole country, the General Staff accepted the situation with undoubted sincerity.

EQUALITY AND MILITARY DISCIPLINE SOMEWHAT CONTRADICTORY.

What the military commanders did not foresee, however, was the importance of the Socialists in the new situation or the extent of their influence among the rank and file of the Army. However desirable democratic principles may be in time of peace, they are ill adapted to warfare. Discipline is the first essential in a large fighting organization, and discipline is only possible where the command is centred in one head. Successful warfare can only be waged as men are willing to merge their individual identities into the supreme will of their commander.

This fact such leaders as Alexander

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Kerensky and Plekhanov were intelligent enough to realize; and as they recognized the supreme necessity of defeating German Imperialism before establishing Socialism in Russia, they believed that the principles of equality should, for the time being, be suspended, so far as the Army was concerned at least. But their simple followers, who constituted a large part of the rank and file of the military forces, remembered only that their leaders had preached democracy, the brotherhood of man, equality and fraternity. Now that the ideas of these preachers of Socialism were triumphantly embodied in the new revolutionary government, they could not all understand why they should not immediately be applied everywhere.

THE SOLDIERS GIVEN REPRESENTATION IN THE PETROGRAD SOVIET.

This powerful sentiment had to be met and placated. The soldiers were given representation behind the lines in the Soviet, and through the Soviet they demanded the right of discussion. The members of a company in the front lines would meet to discuss the political situation. This gave the ultra-radicals, the pacifists, who did not believe in any further fighting, an opportunity to make themselves heard and to carry on agitation. Thus demoralization was spread. Then came the abolition of the death penalty, and when these ultra-radicals refused to fight during the desultory skirmishing which was all this time going on with the enemy, they could not be punished.

Thousands of others took advantage of the situation and deserted, openly returning to their homes. Next they demanded that the salute be abolished as incompatible with equality. That was granted. Again, in some sectors the sentiment in favor of "the brotherhood of man" led to fraternization with the enemy, though often this was done in the hope of being able to spread revolutionary propaganda among the Austrian and German troops, that it might lead to the overthrow of their autocracies. The German commanders encouraged such intercourse at first, for in this way they gained much

valuable information and were able to observe more closely the progress of the demoralization which was going on among the Russians.

THE SOLDIERS DEMAND SOVIETS AT THE FRONT.

Week by week, as the Soviet in Petrograd increased in power, the demands continued progressively. In some army organizations the soldiers insisted that every command from their superior officers was to be obeyed only after having the approval of a general meeting of the members of the company, or regiment. That this would destroy both promptness and unity of action so essential in a fighting organization is plain enough. Finally it was even demanded that all the officers should resign and the vacancies be filled by election from the ranks. That was done later, under the Bolsheviks, but at this time, under the régime of the Provisional Government, it was firmly refused. Even the ultra-radicals in the Executive Committee of the Soviet realized the utter impossibility of carrying out such a principle, if the Army was to maintain its fighting efficiency.

Had the Germans attempted to take advantage of the situation by initiating a general offensive, it is probable that they would have defeated their own ends. The impending danger might have roused the patriotic spirit of the Russians to fighting heat again, as the war itself had brought together the radicals and the conservatives. But the Teutons were too wise to commit any such blunder. Time was their strongest ally, and they refrained from any aggressive operations, waiting for the disintegration of the Russian Army.

KERENSKY STRIVES TO MAINTAIN THE MORALE OF THE ARMY.

For two months the army commanders fought this deterioration of morale of the troops. Finally, in the middle of May, they forced the issue by resigning simultaneously. They refused longer to assume the responsibility of command if discipline were undermined by the authority of the Soviet which, consisting in large part

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of the soldiers' delegates, was inclined to grant all that the soldiers demanded. Kerensky, though himself an ardent Socialist, realized the oncoming danger as keenly as the army commanders. He was able to impart some of his apprehensions to his more radical associates, with the result that the Soviet agreed not to interfere further in the army organization,

near future. Alexiev, as commander-in-chief, was displaced by Brusilov, who had so distinguished himself in his offensive in Galicia the year before.

During all this period a certain amount of fighting had been going on. It was notably in such defensive fighting that the Russians showed themselves at the best. Wherever the Germans did initiate local attacks,



"CARRIED AWAY INTO CAPTIVITY"

These are Russian prisoners being sent to Germany on a freight train. They only heard rumors—purposely distorted by the Germans—of what was happening in their own country while they were in captivity, and found it difficult to adjust themselves to the new conditions when they were at last allowed to return to their homes.

though given stronger representation in the Provisional Government. For the time being, the fatal tendency was checked and the commanders were again given a firm grip on their commands. Kerensky himself went to the front and exhorted the soldiers to adhere to the rigid discipline demanded for a continuance of the war against Germany.

Kerensky had at this time been made Minister of War. Realizing, perhaps, that the old tendencies must inevitably assert themselves again, he rushed the preparations for a strong offensive against the Germans in the

they were repulsed. The Russians, on the other hand, attempted very few offensive operations.

AN ATTACK IS PLANNED FOR THE SUMMER.

In the early part of June the reports indicated a strengthening of the Russian fighting spirit. On the 20th of that month the All-Russian Soviet, representing the soldiers on all the fronts, as well as the workingmen throughout the country, passed a resolution in favor of an offensive against the enemy as soon as it could be undertaken. At this time German reports indicated greater activity of

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artillery and more raiding parties from the Russian lines than for many months past. Fraternization came to a complete and abrupt end; parties of Germans approaching the Russian trenches with white flags were everywhere fired upon.

On the last day of June reports indicated that the Russians had begun fighting on a larger scale than at any

ing the Russians began another infantry advance on a thirty-five mile front west of Lemberg. Press reports stated that Kerensky himself was in this region, exhorting the soldiers to make a supreme effort. During this day of fighting the Russians not only made some slight advance, driving the Teutons out of their first line trenches, but claimed to have taken 160 officers



GERMAN DUG-OUT UPON THE EASTERN FRONT

Examples of German comfort in dug-outs became the wonder of the Allied soldiers who saw them. This is a typical underground home, comfortably stocked with provisions and drink, and aesthetically decorated with tapestry-hung walls and a picture of the Kaiser. One queries if the tall wine-glasses and graceful candlesticks were issued by the Army. Ruschin

time since the previous year. After heavy artillery preparation, lasting all day, the Russians on the upper Strypa began an advance along an eighteen-mile front. This attack was eventually forced back by the destructive fire of the Austro-German machine guns, but the Russians had persisted so strongly that they suffered heavy losses. On the same day a similar attack was delivered by the Russians in the region of Brzezany and west of Zalocz, with the same result.

During that night artillery roared up and down almost the entire length of the Eastern Front. The next morn-

and nearly 9,000 men prisoners. The Germans, on their part, reported that the severity of the engagements exceeded anything that had taken place for a year and that the Russians suffered severely. How seriously the Germans took these operations may be judged from the fact that Field Marshal von Hindenburg and General von Ludendorff had hastened to Austrian field headquarters.

THE OFFENSIVE IS SUCCESSFUL DURING THE EARLY DAYS.

During the first few days of July, 1917, it became obvious that the Russian offensive was not only in full

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swing, but was pressing the Austro-Germans hard at many points. Gradually the fighting was widening over a broader zone. The Czech-Slovak brigade, organized from prisoners, especially distinguished itself, sweeping over three lines of German trenches, and capturing nearly 4,000 prisoners.

Above the Pripiet Marshes toward Riga, the Germans held their own, though their counter-attacks were hurled back. But in Galicia the Austro-Hungarians were everywhere being pressed back. On July 4, German reinforcements made some attempts to regain lost ground in Galicia, without success. On July 5, an artillery battle developed with unusual violence between Zborov and Brzezany, in Galicia. Here Turkish troops for the most part held the Teuton lines. These showed better morale than the Austrians and Hungarians, and all that day were able to repel the repeated Russian infantry attacks.

HALICZ AND STANISLAU ARE BOTH THREATENED

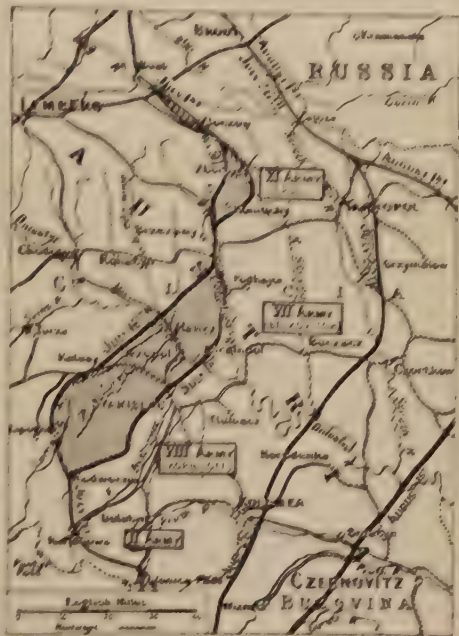
By the 7th the Russian lines had advanced so far westward that Halicz, only sixty miles southwest of Lemberg, the capital of Galicia, was within range of the heavier Russian guns. Here the Russian offensive covered a front of more than thirty miles, along the Narayuvka River. On this same day there was heavy fighting near Stanislaw, where one wave after another of Russian infantry stormed the Austro-Hungarian trenches, engaging the enemy in hand-to-hand combats.

By the end of the first ten days of the offensive it became evident that the Russians had concentrated their efforts against the Austrians and Hungarians in the south, whose lines they seemed to consider the weakest. Toward the Baltic, they had not attempted any determined forward move, being satisfied to check the German attacks. So far their strategy was proving eminently successful; so far the Russian morale showed itself as strong as ever.

GENERAL KORNILOV, THE COSSACK, IS SUCCESSFUL

On July 10, Petrograd was able to announce the first really notable

achievement of the general offensive—the capture, on the day before, of Halicz, an important railroad point on the Dniester. General Kornilov, the Cossack leader, was in command of the Russian army in this sector, and the Austrians defending the town were unable to withstand his attacks. Within two days the Teuton positions, to a



THE LAST RUSSIAN OFFENSIVE

depth of seven miles and fortified during a two years' occupation, had been overrun by the Russians.

In the direction of Dolina, in the region west of Stanislaw, General Kornilov continued his offensive operations successfully. Here the Russians advanced toward Lemberg, on the heels of the retiring Austrians, along a front of nearly twenty miles.

On the 10th the troops which had captured Halicz crossed to the left banks of the river. By evening they had reached the valley of the River Lomnitz. They were now threatening the approaches to the passes in the Northern Carpathians. In this region the Russians took over 10,000 prisoners during three days of fighting, as well as seventy field pieces and a dozen guns of heavy calibre.

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THE BATTLE LINE SWAYS BACK AND FORTH.

Fighting now grew more intense in the northern stretch of the Eastern Front toward Riga, where the Russians became suddenly more aggressive. But the main offensive still continued in the south, especially between the Dniester and Lomnitza rivers. On July 11, Kornilov's troops fought a

the Russians, by hand to hand fighting in the streets, finally drove the enemy out and remained in possession.

On the following day the Austro-Germans counter-attacked at Kalusz again, but the Russians were now in such strong force that they not only repulsed them, but resumed their advance. After heavy fighting they occupied the village of Novica, south-



AUSTRIAN LANDSTURM GOING TO FIRING LINE

Good examples of the southern temperament with its abandon to the mood of the hour and inconsequent light-heartedness are these soldiers of the Austrian landsturm en route for the front. Mercifully, in these tragic days men learned to live in the present and he who whiled away a tedious hour never lacked a following. Ruschin

very stubborn battle, with the result that the enemy was forced out of the town of Kalusz, which had normally a population of 10,000. This gave the Russians a hold on the important railroad running between Stanislau and Lemberg. The Russians holding Kalusz, however, were soon attacked by enemy reinforcements and were compelled to retire. Again they returned with a stronger force, and re-entered the town, and once more the Austro-Germans counter-attacked, supported by an armored train. Back and forth swayed the battle line, in and out of the town, until dark, when

west of Kalusz. But now a heavy rain began falling and swelled the rivers and rendered the ground so marshy that further operations were considerably hampered.

The Russian operations up to this point, in the middle of July, had been efficiently conducted, and pre-eminently successful. Two important strategic centres had been taken, Halicz and Kalusz, and the Austro-German lines, driven back many miles. During this period the Russians had taken nearly 36,000 prisoners, 900 of whom were officers, and large quantities of guns and other war material.

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THE RUSSIAN OFFENSIVE BEGINS TO SLACKEN.

But it now became daily more evident that the Russian strength had reached its maximum of effort and that it was beginning to slacken. Added to that, the Austro-Germans were bringing up heavy reinforcements from behind the lines. Thus they were able to bring their superior transportation facilities

Germans were obviously gaining the advantage.

During the next few days the fighting raged more violently than ever. From all along the whole front came reports of strong attacks and counter-attacks. East of Brzezany the Russians suffered a serious set-back, being driven out of their trenches along a length of several miles. Then came the



SOLDIERS LEAVING THE FRONT AND GOING HOME

Arrival at a point in the interior of Russia of a train seized by panic-stricken troops who have fled before the Germans. For the most part the enemy refrained from attack, knowing such action would tend to unite the soldiers in a common defense. They recognized that socialism in the ranks could do more deadly work.

Central News Service

to bear in their favor. On July 15, these reinforcements began showing their presence by a perceptible stiffening of the Teuton defense along the whole front. On that day there was exceptionally heavy fighting, but the Russians made no further advances. On the contrary, they were thrown back slightly at several points.

On July 16, the Austrians, reinforced by Germans, resumed their counter-attacks against the Russians about Kalusz. The latter were driven back across the river and the town abandoned. The weather was clearing now, but with the renewal of operations the

first signs of the fundamental deterioration of the Russian soldier as a fighting unit.

THE FIRST WHOLE REGIMENT ABANDONS THE TRENCHES.

After a thorough artillery preparation the Germans had attacked the Russians near Barbutzov, twenty miles south of Brody. During the morning (July 19), the Russians successfully drove the German attacks back. But shortly before mid-day the 607th Mlynov Regiment, stationed between Batov and Manajov, deliberately left its trenches, at a moment when the enemy was not pressing the attack, and

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retired to the rear, refusing to fight any further. The Russian lines on each side of the regiment had, in consequence, also to retire to prevent the Germans pouring in through the breach at the next attack. The Russian reports blamed this incident to the agitation of a number of Bolshevik members of the regiment.

Unfortunately this was typical of

refused to obey their commanders. Consequently our lines were forced to retire."

KORNILOV GIVEN COMMAND OF THE WHOLE GALICIAN FRONT.

Hastily the Provisional Government attempted to check the demoralization by a change in the command of the Russians operating in Galicia. Kornilov, who had shown such brilliant



BARBED WIRE CONSTRUCTION IN POLAND

Instead of the bindweed, barbed wire—twisted around and darting from stakes which covered the ground for miles "over hill, over dale" as a first line defense. The work of setting up these entanglements and of destroying them was hazardous in the extreme, and the Italians called their bodies of wire-cutters "Death Companies." This is German wire but the line of battle was moved.

Pictures from H. Ruschin

dozens of such incidents, which happened during the operations of the next few days. Everywhere men were refusing to obey their officers. Under the strain the Russian spirit was broken, not so much by attacks on the front as from the rear. Russian reports now admitted that Russian army organization was collapsing, that disaffection was spreading like a prairie fire. Speaking of the Russian retreat before Tarnopol, the Pétrograd report said:

"On the whole our soldiers did not show the necessary determination to win. Some regiments deliberately re-

sults in the capture of Kalusz with the Eighth Russian Army, was given command of the whole front in Galicia. Kornilov was unpopular with the radical elements, on account of the almost ferocious disciplinary methods he sometimes employed, but Kerensky was willing to risk the displeasure of the Soviet, if only the German advance could be stemmed. But neither Kornilov nor any other general could have accomplished that with the material at his disposal. The soul of the army had vanished. Regiments with glorious records now fled before the enemy, or refused to advance.

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The German General Staff understood the situation, and was now determined to take full advantage of it. The German offensive was pushed with extreme energy. Again and again, day by day, the Austro-Germans struck at the Russian lines, pushing them back mile after mile. The main point of their offensive was at Tarnopol, and here the Russians were completely

was launched, but broke up before the German fire. In the direction of Vilna a succession of Russian infantry attacks succeeded in penetrating the German lines over two miles and taking over a thousand Germans prisoners. But this and similar slight successes could not be sustained, largely through the apathy of the rank and file of the Russian troops. In the south the



RUSSIAN TROOPS DRINKING FROM A STREAM

Spring comes late in northern Russia and the ice in the rivers and snow take a long time to thaw. In this picture Russian soldiers are refreshing themselves by a drink of water on the way to Germany. It is a typical scene, for who can think of Russia without recalling snow and plains?

routed. In the afternoon of July 21, the Germans and Austrians forced their way forward from Tarnopol to a point as far as the Sereth bridgehead. The town of Tarnopol and a number of neighboring villages were soon a mass of flames. By the end of the day the entire Russian front from the Zlota Lipa to the Dniester was retiring before the pressure of the enemy.

THE WHOLE RUSSIAN LINE IS BADLY DEMORALIZED.

Hoping to create a diversion, the Russians now attempted to take the offensive in the north. From Smorgon to Krivo a general infantry attack

Teutons advanced more and more swiftly, along a line almost 170 miles in length, from the River Sereth to the foothills of the Carpathians.

By the 23rd the Teutons had crossed the Sereth, near Tarnopol, and advanced beyond Halicz. Some Russian divisions here offered a resistance noteworthy in contrast with the general demoralization of the Russians as a whole, but they did not succeed in doing more than temporarily delaying the German advance. Southwest of Dvinsk several Russian regiments succeeded in taking and occupying the German front line trenches and then,

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without any pressure from the enemy, they threw down their guns and retired to the rear. The gains of 1916 and more had been lost in a week.

BRUSILOV RESIGNS AND IS SUCCEEDED BY KORNILOV.

On August 1, the Russian Commander-in-chief, Brusilov, handed in his resignation, and the Provisional Government immediately appointed

were presented and, had he followed his own will, he would not have accepted them. Kerensky had a fixed belief that wars could be won by words, but the other members of the Cabinet felt that Kornilov was the only man capable of maintaining a front against the enemy, if any man were capable of that gigantic task.

But if Kornilov succeeded in accom-



TRENCHES ON THE EASTERN FRONT

These are Russian trenches supposedly bomb-proof, built with thoroughness and method. Besides their value for safety, they were warm during the long snowy winters. Where the trenches were anywhere permanent Russians and Germans vied with one another in their elaboration, though the latter were as a rule better fitted up inside.

Kornilov in his stead. Kornilov immediately made certain "conditions" on which depended his acceptance of the supreme command. First of all, he refused to be responsible to anybody in his direction of the military operations, except to "his own conscience." He also insisted that "the measures adopted during the past few days at the front shall also be applied behind the lines," which meant that he had re-established the death penalty. Kerensky has since stated that the members of the Government found the substance of these demands more acceptable than the form in which they

plishing any good by his severe methods, it was not obvious in any stiffening of the Russian lines. From all points came only reports of retreat. In the Carpathians the Austro-German forces pressed back the Russians west of the River Putna, about thirty-five miles southwest of Czernowitz. On August 3, the Russians gained a local and a temporary success, driving the Austrians out of a number of villages south of Skala, in Galicia. But this was more than offset by the Austrian advance further south in Bukovina, where they drove the Russians out of Czernowitz and across the Pruth. The capital

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of Bukovina was once more in the hands of the Austrians.

From now on, however, the Austro-German offensive in Galicia and further south slackened. Conditions such as those which had existed during the early part of the year began to prevail again. The Russians had been thoroughly beaten, and the Germans could remain satisfied with what they had

the rescue and attempted to cross the river Sereth.

In spite of the wholesale desertion of whole Russian regiments the Rumanians stood firm. If they gave way all Rumania was lost, but the First Army did not give a yard. The battle centred around Marasesti, the greatest battle in Rumanian history. On August 19, the last desperate assault failed.



RUTHENIAN BLACKSMITH AT WORK

The Ruthenians, as subjects of the Austrian Empire, were impressed into the armies and forced to fight in a quarrel about which they knew little, and cared less. This blacksmith, a fine sturdy type, is plying his trade in a quiet field behind the lines with the primitive appliances with which he has always worked.

Picture, H. Ruschin

won while the Bolshevik agitators with the weapons of propaganda continued the war for them.

THE REMNANT OF RUMANIA IS SAVED FOR A TIME.

Meanwhile lower down the Rumanian front was held by the First and Second Rumanian Armies, and the Fourth Russian Army under General Scherbachev. During the latter part of July there was some sharp fighting in the Susitza valley. The Austro-German forces were driven back, though various units of the Russian forces were evaporating and disappearing. Von Mackensen came to

The attack against the Second Army, around Ocna was hardly more successful, and the remnant of Rumania was preserved until the complete demoralization of Russia left it surrounded by enemies.

THE GERMANS NOW TAKE RIGA WITHOUT DIFFICULTY.

Toward the end of August the Germans showed increasing activity in the northern section of the Eastern Front. They had decided that they wanted Riga, and set out to obtain it. On August 22, they began to advance, and in two days they had reached the River Aa and several points on the

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Gulf of Riga. On September 1, 1917, the Germans delivered persistent infantry attacks, about fifteen miles above Riga. They successfully crossed the Dvina and drove the Russians back. On the morning of September 3, the Russians were compelled to evacuate the city of Riga, blowing up the bridges across the river and the fortifications as they retired. Already

his Cabinet strove heroically to restore the discipline of the Army by a re-establishment of those measures which had been demanded by General Kornilov. The latter remained dissatisfied, however; he wished the death penalty to apply behind the lines as well, especially in the transport service and in the munitions factories.

Then, encouraged by the conserv-



ANOTHER COMMON USE OF BARBED WIRE

Types of Russian prisoners in a German detention camp at Zossen, a town just south of Berlin. The men are warmly clad and, so far as their clothes and boots are concerned, are in good condition. When prisoners were captured in an advance they were taken to the rear and left in wire compounds until final disposition could be made of them.

Pictures from Henry Ruschin

German shells from large calibre guns were dropping into the heart of the city and causing much destruction. That same evening the German troops entered and took possession. They found little in the way of war material, however, for the Russians had had time to remove everything of military value.

THE QUESTION OF A DICTATORSHIP IS NOW DISCUSSED.

The fall of Riga caused proportionately a greater shock in Russia than anything that had befallen the Russian armies during the retreat after the middle of July. Kerensky and

active elements, he decided to take the situation entirely into his own hands and proclaim himself dictator, that he might autocratically apply his disciplinary system in full. But it was now too late. The rank and file of his armies had drunk too deeply of the Socialist doctrines to be willing to support him. He could depend only on the semi-barbarian regiments from the Caucasus and Asiatic Russia, and even these, including his own Cossacks, showed no enthusiasm for a dictatorship. On the other hand, the rank and file rallied to Kerensky's call for help. For a short period the workers in the

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munitions factories worked day and night, believing that thereby they were helping to suppress Kornilov.

THE ARMY NOW ONLY AN ARMED MOB.

After Kornilov's arrest, in the middle of September, even Kerensky realized that the Russian Army was no longer a factor in the war against the Central

cause. Fighting, except of the most sporadic kind, ceased on the Russian front, and the soldiers gave themselves up almost entirely to holding meetings and discussing politics. Many officers were killed or degraded. Only to repel German raids or local attacks would they take up their guns, and these acts of aggression the Germans soon ceased



OPERATIONS AROUND THE GULF OF RIGA

Powers. Kornilov's successor, General Dukhonin, was an honest and sincere supporter of the Provisional Government, but he had not the genius to affect in the slightest the situation at the front.

It was now that the Bolshevik propaganda began to make rapid strides within the army itself, shown in the sudden majority given the Bolshevik faction in the Soviet. Fear of a counter-revolution in favor of the autocracy, rather than a genuine belief in the doctrines of Lenin, was the

almost entirely. The artillery regiments for a long time showed themselves least susceptible to the Bolshevik agitation, and for some time the Russian guns did continue bombarding the German lines, but even while the artillery continued hostilities, the infantry would fraternize with the enemy in the trenches. This was strongly encouraged by the Bolshevik agitators, who had leaflets and pamphlets printed in German, which were passed over to the German soldiers in the hope of converting them to the

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Bolshevist doctrines of pacifism. As later events were to prove, the Germans were little affected, though it was the policy of the German officers to encourage a belief to the contrary among the Russians.

THE GERMANS TAKE WHATEVER THEY WISH.

Before the final collapse of the Kerensky régime, however, Russian patriots were to suffer another blow from an enemy success. On October 12, 1917, under cover of strong naval detachments, the Germans landed marines and soldiers on the shore of Tagga Bay, north of the Island of Oesel, in the Gulf of Riga. An engagement took place between the German ships and the Russian ships and shore batteries, in which the former prevailed through their greatly superior force, though here the Russians showed a determined resistance. During the next few days the Germans also occupied Oesel and Dago islands, and still later, Moon Island. In the naval operations which took place during this period the Russians lost several large ships, though the Russian official reports claimed that the Germans lost two dreadnoughts, one cruiser, twelve torpedo boats and a number of smaller craft.

As a contrast to these German successes, the German lines in the Riga sector were withdrawn considerably for

the purposes of straightening out the front. This at least relieved the fear of the Russians that Petrograd was to be made the object of immediate attack. Only a few weeks intervened, however, between then and the final collapse of Russia as an enemy of Germany, when the Bolsheviks were to open the negotiations which were to culminate in the humiliating peace of Brest-Litovsk.

SOME SLIGHT OPERATIONS TAKE PLACE ON THE TURKISH FRONT.

Of the operations on the Russo-Turkish front during the Kerensky régime only a few words are necessary. In April the Russians had been forced to retire from Mush. During the rest of the summer practically no reports came in from this front. On November 4, only three days before the Bolshevik revolution, there was a slight revival of activity against the Turks. In the Black Sea Coastal region, in the Kalkit-Tchiflik sector, the Russians began a sudden offensive and penetrated the Turkish lines to their third line trenches. But this slight success was not sustained. Later in November further hostilities were continued, in co-operation with the British forces north of Bagdad, for apparently the Russians in this more distant theatre of the war were the last to be affected by the wave of Bolshevik propaganda.



The White House at Washington

CHAPTER XLV

The United States Enters the War

UNRESTRICTED SUBMARINE WARFARE BRINGS THE NATION INTO THE CONTEST

BY the close of 1915 American diplomacy seemed to have won a victory in the submarine controversy. Germany had agreed that no passenger vessels should be sunk without provision being made for the complete safety of the passengers and crew. The feeling of relief which this agreement brought was soon disturbed by the controversy over the arming of merchant vessels. (See p. 275.)

THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT DENIES RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE SUSSEX.

Pending the settlement of the dispute the country was aroused by the news of the sinking of the cross channel steamer *Sussex* on March 24, 1916. The *Sussex* was not armed and had never carried troops. The attack was without warning and resulted in the injury or death of eighty passengers, among them several Americans. This was a violation of an explicit promise. The German government, while admitting that a vessel had been sunk at the time and place indicated, contended that the vessel was not the *Sussex*. To substantiate this claim the authorities submitted a sketch of the vessel sunk, made by the commander of the submarine, differing in shape and construction from the *Sussex*. It is difficult to believe that even the German officials took this "evidence" seriously.

THE AMERICAN NOTE AMOUNTS TO AN ULTIMATUM.

Secretary Lansing despatched a note to Germany in the nature of an ultimatum. Recalling the previous promises made by the German authorities and indicating that the sinking of the *Sussex* clearly violated these pledges, he declared that unless the Germans should immediately abandon their "present methods of submarine warfare against passenger and freight-carrying vessels" the United States would have no other recourse than to break diplomatic relations with Germany.

The German reply was received on May 4, 1916. It stated that the commanders of submarines had received the following instructions: "In accordance with the general principles of visit and search and destruction of merchant vessels recognized by international law, such vessels, both within and without the area declared a naval war zone, shall not be sunk without warning and without saving human lives unless these ships attempt to escape or offer resistance."

AMERICAN RIGHTS NOT DEPENDENT UPON BRITISH ACTION.

It was stated, however, that the United States was expected to insist that Great Britain should abandon her blockade of Germany and her

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interference with neutral trade. Should the British government fail to do so the German note stated that "the German government would then be facing a new situation, in which it must reserve to itself complete liberty of decision."

Mr. Lansing replied that the United States would expect Germany to carry out scrupulously its announced change of policy and "cannot for a moment entertain, much less discuss, a suggestion that respect by German naval

had been made to comply with the rules of cruiser warfare. The relief proved to be but temporary, as this pause in submarine frightfulness was not due to any change of heart on the part of the German authorities, but to policy. Admiral von Tirpitz' Memoirs show the conflicting forces in Germany at this period.

On December 12, 1916, the Teutonic alliance without previous intimation or explanation proposed that the belligerents "enter forthwith into peace negotiations." The military situation and the internal conditions in Germany will explain the reason. The war map showed the Teutonic powers in possession of large areas of enemy territory. Belgium, Northern France, Serbia, Montenegro, Rumania and Russian Poland and some of the Baltic lands of Russia had been overrun. All of these were valuable pawns with which to negotiate if the Entente should agree to enter upon peace discussions. It seemed improbable that the situation would ever be more favorable for the Teutonic powers. But these notable gains had not been won without great sacrifices by the German people. Two years of warfare had made great inroads upon the man power and material resources of the Teutonic allies. The blockade was making it increasingly difficult for the German authorities to obtain essential war materials, to say nothing of food and clothing for the civilian population.

THE REASONS FOR THE GERMAN OFFER OF PEACE.

In these circumstances something was needed to strengthen the morale of the German people. By making a peace offer which they knew would be rejected by their enemies, the German leaders hoped to be able to convince the German people that they were fighting a defensive struggle and thus to reconcile them to greater sacrifices.

As was anticipated the Entente Allies refused to consider the German proposal, which they stated was "empty and insincere." Mr. Lloyd George declared that "to enter on the invitation of Germany, proclaiming herself victorious, without any knowledge



THE GERMAN BLOCKADE OF EUROPE

The area declared blockaded is indicated by diagonal lines, and the lanes through which passage was permitted are indicated.

authorities for the rights of citizens of the United States upon the high seas should in any way or in the slightest degree be made contingent upon the conduct of any other government affecting the rights of neutrals and non-combatants. Responsibility in such matters is single, not joint; absolute, not relative." No reply was received to this note.

THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT ANNOUNCES UNRESTRICTED SUBMARINE WARFARE.

Once more the people of the United States breathed more freely as a result of what appeared to be a final settlement of the submarine problem. For nine months, from May, 1916, to February, 1917, German submarines generally observed the promise which

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of the proposals she intends to make, into a conference, is putting our heads into a noose with the rope end in the hands of the Germans."

PRESIDENT WILSON ASKS FOR A STATEMENT OF WAR AIMS.

When the German peace offer appeared President Wilson had already prepared a communication to the various belligerents. In this note the President directed attention to the fact that each side professed to be fighting a defensive war; each claimed to be "ready to consider the formation of a League of Nations to ensure peace and justice throughout the world." The objects for which both sides were fighting "stated in general terms seem to be the same." The President felt justified, therefore, in asking the belligerents to state "the precise objects which would, if attained, satisfy them and their people."

In reply the German government evaded the question but renewed its offer to enter upon peace negotiations. The Entente powers replied more to the point. While they were unwilling to declare their objects in complete detail, certain fundamental conditions were set down. These included the restoration of Belgium, Serbia, and Montenegro with compensation; the evacuation of France, Russia and Rumania with just reparation; the reorganization of Europe on a stable basis which involved the liberation of the subject nationalities in Germany, Austria and Turkey. At the same time it was stated that it was not the purpose of the Entente allies "to encompass the extermination of the German people and their political independence."

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS TO THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.]

In requesting this information from the belligerents the President indicated that he was not proposing mediation or even the calling of a peace conference. He was seeking information by which the United States could be guided in formulating its future policy toward the war and more particularly in regard to the peace which should end the war. In a remarkable address delivered before the Senate on January

22, 1917, President Wilson developed more fully this idea. He stated that it was inconceivable that the United States should not play a part "in the days to come when it will be necessary to lay afresh and upon a new plan the foundations of peace among nations." In such an enterprise the people of the United States had a great service to perform. "That service is



WOODROW WILSON, PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

nothing less than this; to add their authority and their power to the authority and force of other nations to guarantee peace and justice throughout the world." If the people of the United States were to be asked to join in this great enterprise he felt that it was necessary to formulate the conditions upon which he "would feel justified in asking our people to approve its formal and solemn adherence to a League for Peace."

While the United States would have no voice in determining the actual terms of peace it was greatly interested in what the terms of peace shall be. "We shall have a voice in determining whether they shall be made lasting or

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not by the guarantees of a universal covenant; and our judgment upon what is fundamental and essential as a condition precedent to permanency should be spoken now, not afterwards when it may be too late."

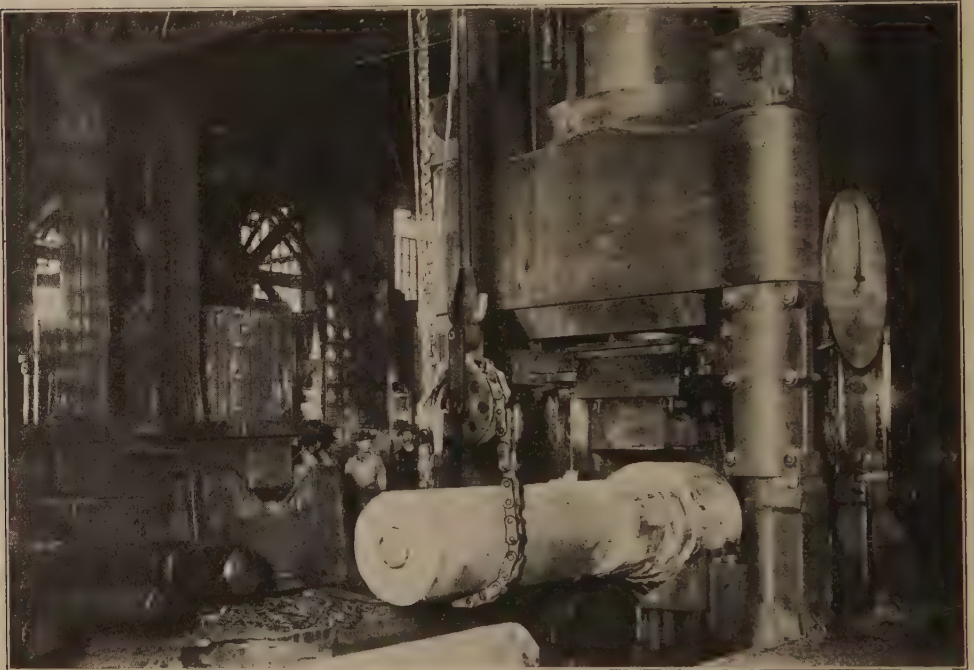
THE IDEA OF A LEAGUE OF NATIONS IS PRESENTED.

"First it will be absolutely necessary that a force be created as a guarantor

balance of power, but a community of power; not organized rivalries, but an organized, common peace."

PEACE WITHOUT VICTORY A NECESSITY FOR PERMANENCE.

Furthermore a permanent peace must be based upon an equality of nations and national rights. "It must be a peace without victory. It is not pleasant to say this. I beg that I may be



FORGING A CANNON AT THE BETHLEHEM STEEL WORKS

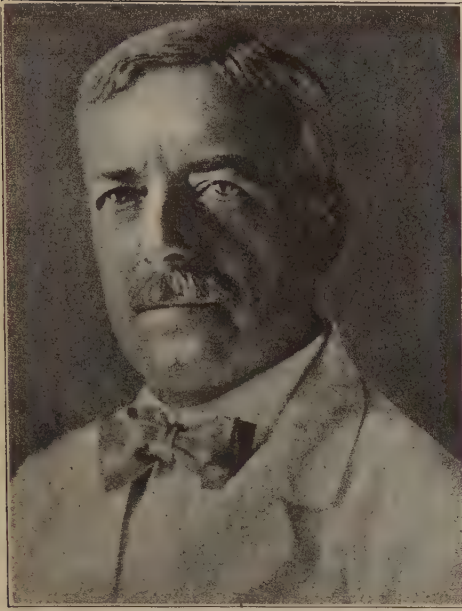
In making a heavy cannon the great ingot of cast steel is forged into shape by continual blasts of heavy hammers before it is entirely cool. Here we see an ingot under the hammer. The Bethlehem works had been engaged in making munitions for the Allies on a large scale before the United States entered the war.

of the permanency of the settlement so much greater than the force of any nation now engaged or any alliance hitherto formed or projected, that no nation, no probable combination of nations, could face or withstand it."

But the terms of the peace must be such as to warrant such a guarantee. "The question upon which the whole future peace and policy of the world depends is this: Is the present war a struggle for a just and secure peace, or only for a new balance of power? If it be only for a new balance of power, who will guarantee, who can guarantee, the stable equilibrium of the new arrangement? There must be, not a

permitted to put my own interpretation upon it and that it may be understood that no other interpretation was in my thought. I am seeking only to face realities and to face them without soft concealments. Victory would mean peace forced upon the loser, a victor's terms imposed upon the vanquished. . . Only a peace between equals can last. . . Equality of territory or of resources there, of course, cannot be; nor any sort of equality not gained in the ordinary peaceful and legitimate development of the people themselves. But no one asks or expects anything more than an equality of rights."

Of even greater importance was the



ROBERT LANSING, SECRETARY OF STATE

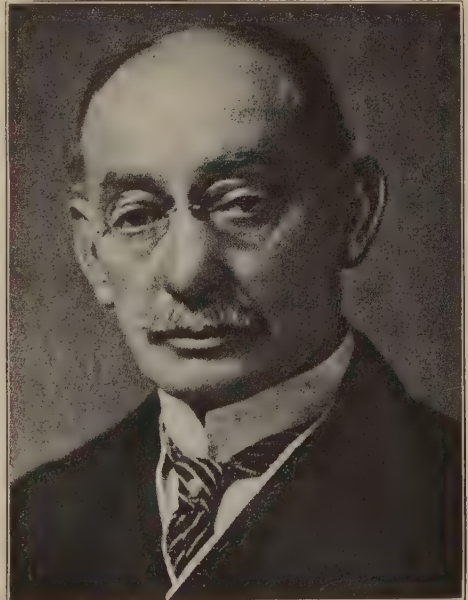
recognition of the rights of peoples to formulate their own political institutions. "No peace can last, or ought to last, which does not recognize and accept the principle that governments derive all their just rights from the consent of the governed, and that no right anywhere exists to hand peoples about from sovereignty to sovereignty as if they were property. . . . Any peace which does not recognize and accept this principle will inevitably be upset."

THE FREEDOM OF THE SEAS AND LIMITATION OF ARMAMENTS.

A further principle which President Wilson considered of vital importance was the freedom of the seas. "The freedom of the seas is the *sine qua non* of peace, equality, and coöperation." Such freedom contemplated "the free, constant, unthreatened intercourse of nations" on the high seas. In the case of nations whose territory did not touch the high seas a guaranteed and neutralized right of way should be provided. The problem of the freedom of the seas involved the limitation of naval armaments which in turn "opens the wider and perhaps more difficult question of the limitation of armies

and of all programmes of military preparation." These questions are difficult and "they must be faced with the utmost candor and decided in a spirit of real accommodation, if peace is to come with healing in its wings, and come to stay. Peace cannot be had without concession and sacrifice."

These were the conditions upon which the President felt that the United States might be asked to join with the nations of Europe in guaranteeing the peace of the world. While speaking as an individual he was "confident that I have said what the people of the United States would wish me to say." Moreover he expressed the hope that he was speaking "for the silent mass of mankind everywhere who have had as yet no opportunity to speak their real hearts out concerning the death and ruin they see to have come already upon the persons and homes they hold most dear. . . . I speak with the greater boldness because it is clear to every man who can think that there is in this promise no breach in either our traditions or our policy as a nation, but a fulfilment, rather, of all that we have professed or striven for. I am proposing, as it were, that the nations



WALTER H. PAGE, AMBASSADOR TO GREAT BRITAIN

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

should with one accord adopt the doctrine of President Monroe as the doctrine of the world; that no nation should seek to extend its polity over any other nation or people, but that every people should be left free to determine its own polity, its own way of development, unhindered, unafraid, the little along with the great and powerful."

out the country the President's words made a deep impression, and excited much discussion. It is significant that there was so little popular dissent from the bold stand. Such criticism as appeared was directed chiefly to the demands of a "peace without victory." A few objected to the idea that the United States should assume any position in settling European quarrels. Senator



GENERAL PERSHING AND STAFF ON BOARD THE BALTIC

General Pershing and his staff arrived at Liverpool June 7, 1917, and after a short stay in England crossed over to France and established headquarters there, first in Paris, but later at Chaumont. Though the staff was subsequently much enlarged, and changed in harmony with General Pershing's idea of giving every man service with troops, some of these officers retained their positions until the Armistice.

THE UNITED STATES TO ABANDON THE POLICY OF ISOLATION.

This speech gives striking evidence how greatly two years of war in Europe had influenced political thinking in the United States. Probably no American president had ever before so frankly proposed such a fundamental change in the foreign policy of the country. It was a clear call to the people of the United States to abandon their traditional isolation from the affairs of Europe and to assume among the nations of the world that position of leadership which their material and moral strength warranted. Through-

Borah was thus early voicing loud opposition to any change in the policy of the Nation. Many expressed the view that a lasting peace would not come until the military power of Germany was crushed. Ex-President Roosevelt was particularly bitter.

Scarcely time enough was allowed for the country to realize the full significance of the change which this address contemplated before it was called upon to face a situation which transformed the United States from a deeply interested observer into a full participant in the great world drama.

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NEWTON D. BAKER, SECRETARY OF WAR

WHY UNRESTRICTED SUBMARINE WARFARE WAS RESUMED.

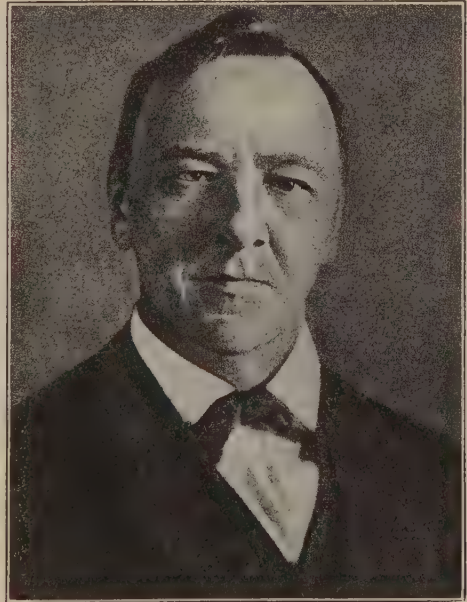
For nine months the German authorities generally observed the promise that merchant vessels should not be sunk without warning and without saving human lives. All at once without the slightest warning, on the 31st of January, 1917, they served notice that they proposed to resume unrestricted submarine warfare.

The war had lasted much longer than the German military leaders had anticipated. The strength of the Teutonic allies had reached, if it had not passed, its maximum. Every month that passed brought added strength to their enemies. A war of attrition could only end in a German defeat. The resources of the United States were aiding the Entente. There appeared to be but one hope and that was to force Great Britain to capitulate by a policy of submarine terror. The elements which were willing to risk a rupture with the United States grew stronger. In the event of a break the German leaders assumed that a country so unprepared for war could do little damage, at least not before the submarine had starved Great Britain into submission. Events were to prove

that they miscalculated as badly in this instance as they did in the invasion of Belgium.

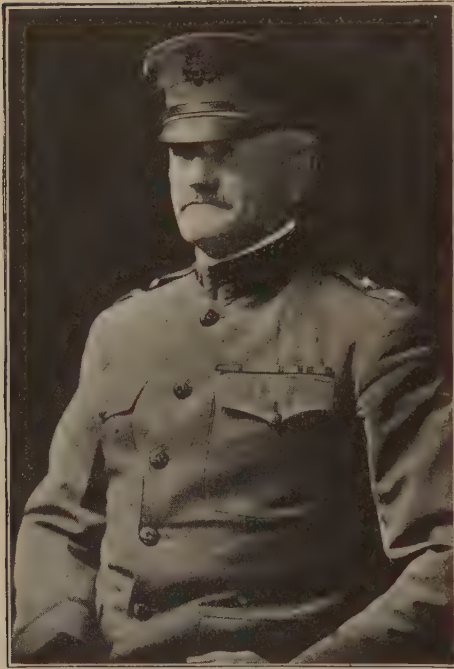
DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS WITH THE GERMAN EMPIRE ARE SEVERED.

The new war zone extended from a point four hundred miles west of Ireland and ran to a point nine hundred miles west of Bordeaux. Lanes of safety in the North Sea, along the Spanish coast and in the Mediterranean Sea were designated in order that access might be had to neutral states. As a concession to the United States one ship a week was to be permitted to sail to England, provided it sailed on a specified day, over a designated course to the port of Falmouth, and displayed certain distinctive markings. Moreover the United States government must guarantee that such ships carried no contraband. In submitting these proposals the German government hoped "that the United States may view the new situation from the lofty heights of impartiality and assist, on their part, to prevent further misery and avoidable sacrifice of human life." Both the remarkable character of the German proposals and the arrogant method of



JOSEPHUS DANIELS, SECRETARY OF THE NAVY

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GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING, COMMANDING
AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE

their presentation created amusement as well as resentment throughout the United States.

The German proposals were so clearly a repudiation of the Sussex pledge that President Wilson immediately ordered the recall of Ambassador Gerard from Berlin and sent Ambassador von Bernstorff his passports. At the same time he stated that he did not believe that Germany would really do what she threatened to do. In closing his address to Congress he said: "We do not desire any hostile conflict with the Imperial German Government. We are the sincere friends of the German people and earnestly desire to remain at peace with the Government that speaks for them. We shall not believe that they are hostile to us unless and until we are obliged to believe it; and we purpose nothing more than the reasonable defense of the undoubted rights of our people. . . . seek merely to vindicate our right to liberty and justice and an unmolested life. These are the bases of peace, not war. God grant we may not be

challenged to defend them by acts of willful injustice on the part of the Government of Germany!"

OTHER NATIONS HESITATE TO BREAK OFF RELATIONS.

President Wilson immediately notified all other neutral governments of the action of the United States and suggested that they take similar action. Though none followed the example of the United States, all the European nations, the majority of the South American republics, and China also, sent vigorous notes of protest to the German government.

There is little doubt that the President expressed the feeling of the majority of the American people. It is true that there were some who felt that the United States should have entered the war at the time of the sinking of the *Lusitania*, while on the other hand there were some German-Americans and pacifists who maintained that the President was leading the country into a war which might be avoided. The most conspicuous of the latter was Mr. Bryan who urged the people



VICE-ADMIRAL WM. S. SIMS, COMMANDING
IN EUROPEAN WATERS



THE FIRST AMERICAN TROOPS DISEMBARKING IN FRANCE

The first American troops that landed in France in June, 1917, belonged to the First Division. The French were much interested in their appearance, their uniforms and their methods, all of which were quite different from those of the French Soldiers. Here they are in line waiting to carry their impedimenta from the transport.



THE FLAG OF THE SIXTEENTH REGIMENT IN PARIS

Some of the regiments of the American Army have a long and honorable history. This is the regimental flag with the national colors, and the color guard of the Sixteenth Regiment of the Regular Army. This regiment paraded in Paris on July 4, 1917, where the American troops attracted much attention. The size of the men was one of the causes of wonder and almost of astonishment.

to telegraph the President and Congressmen not to involve the country in a war "on European soil in settlement of European quarrels."

AMBASSADOR GERARD IS HAMPERED IN LEAVING GERMANY.

Leaving German interests in the hands of Dr. Paul Ritter, the Swiss Minister, Ambassador von Bernstorff sailed from New York on February 14, accompanied by the embassy officials and a number of prominent Germans. After some delay at Halifax, where the British authorities made a thorough search of baggage despite protests, the party arrived safely at Copenhagen. The American ambassador was not so fortunate in his efforts to leave Germany. Upon presenting his demand for his passports he was assured that they would be promptly furnished. Subsequently, however, the German authorities submitted to him a number of proposals which they suggested should be added to the existing treaty between the United States and Germany. These proposals provided that the personal and property rights of the citizens of each nation should remain undisturbed and that such citizens should not be interned or otherwise molested. Mr. Gerard firmly declined to transmit any such proposals and renewed his request for his passports. After a delay of four more days the German authorities complied with his demand and he was able at last to leave for Switzerland. Thence he returned to the United States by way of France and Spain. The Spanish Ambassador and the Dutch Minister took over the affairs of the United States.

With the break in diplomatic relations the German authorities tried to induce the President to enter upon another long diplomatic discussion. Through the Swiss Minister it was proposed that the United States indicate how the submarine warfare might be modified to satisfy our demands. To this suggestion the President returned a flat refusal to enter upon any discussion unless the German authorities repealed the decree of January 31 with its threat of unrestricted submarine warfare.

THE EFFECT OF THE ANNOUNCEMENT ON AMERICAN SHIPPING.

In American shipping circles the German threat aroused serious concern. Owners refused to allow their vessels to leave American ports and underwriters declined to insure the cargoes unless adequate protection was assured. As a result there was a practical embargo on American shipping. To meet this situation President Wilson went before Congress on February 26 and asked for authority to place arms on American ships and to use "any other instrumentalities and methods" that he might deem necessary to protect American ships and property on the high seas. In Congress a bill was introduced appropriating \$100,000,000 to provide armament for merchant ships but that body was unwilling to grant the President the additional power which he requested. The bill passed the House of Representatives by a large majority. In the Senate a small but determined group of Senators conducted a filibuster to prevent the passage of the bill before the expiration of the session on March 4. They were Senators La Follette, Norris, Cummins, Gronna, Clapp, and Works, Republicans; and Stone, O'Gorman, Kirby, Lane and Vardaman, Democrats.

THE INTERCEPTED GERMAN NOTE SEEKING ALLIANCE WITH MEXICO.

While the debate in the Senate was proceeding the State Department issued an intercepted dispatch from Dr. Alfred Zimmermann, then German Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, to the German Minister in Mexico which gave a striking illustration of the utter stupidity of German diplomacy. The Zimmermann dispatch was as follows:

"On the first of February we intend to begin submarine warfare unrestricted. In spite of this, it is our intention to endeavor to keep neutral with the United States of America. If this attempt is not successful, we propose an alliance on the following basis with Mexico. That we shall make war together and together make peace. We shall give general financial support and it is understood that Mexico is to

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reconquer the lost territory of New Mexico, Texas and Arizona. The details are left to you for settlement.

"You are instructed to inform the President of Mexico of the above in the greatest confidence as soon as it is certain that there will be an outbreak of war with the United States, and suggest that the President of Mexico,

effect of overcoming the opposition in the Senate to the President's proposal and the session closed without action having been taken. Seventy-five of the ninety-six members of the Senate signed a protest in which they indicated their desire to vote for the measure but were prevented from doing so because of the Senate rule



THE LANDSHIP "RECRUIT" IN UNION SQUARE, NEW YORK

One of the most interesting and effective aids to recruiting for the Navy was the landship "Recruit" in Union Square, which remained during the whole war. It was a reproduction in wood of one of the great steel battleships, lattice masts, ship's bell and all. Prospective recruits could see sailors going about their daily tasks.

New York Times Photo Service

on his own initiative, should communicate with Japan, suggesting adherence at once to the plan, and at the same time to offer to mediate between Japan and Germany. Please call to the attention of the President of Mexico that the employment of ruthless submarine warfare now promises to compel England to make peace in a few months."

THE PRESIDENT REBUKES "THE LITTLE GROUP OF WILLFUL MEN."

The disclosure of this effort on the part of Germany to embroil the United States with its southern neighbor aroused bitter resentment throughout the country, but it did not have the

allowing unlimited debate. Others would have signed had they been present.

The day following the close of the session of Congress President Wilson issued a stinging rebuke to the "little group of willful men" who had defeated the will of the great majority of the members of Congress. He declared that it was a situation "unparalleled in the history of the country, perhaps in the history of any modern government. . . . More than 500 of the 531 members of the two houses were ready and anxious to act; The House of Representatives had acted by an overwhelming majority, but the Senate

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was unable to act because a little group of eleven Senators had determined that it should not. . . . The Senate of the United States is the only legislative body in the world that cannot act when its majority is ready for action. A little group of willful men, representing no opinion but their own, have rendered the great Government of the United States helpless and contemptible. . . . The only remedy is that the rules of the Senate shall

can be brought to a vote when two-thirds of the members so order.

Having accomplished his purpose President Wilson then obtained an opinion from the Attorney-General that he had the authority to place armament on merchant vessels without further authorization from Congress. Acting upon this opinion it was announced that armed guards would be placed on all American vessels passing through the war zone. This condition of armed



FLEET OF AMERICAN TROOPSHIPS OUTWARD BOUND ON THE ATLANTIC

At a distance of about a mile, in order to be able to manoeuvre freely, steam the second and third ships of this fleet. The men, wearing their life-belts, are prepared for submarine attack; the guns in readiness for training on the difficult mark of the elusive periscope; the life-boats swung out for quick launching.

© International Film Service

be so altered that it can act. The country can be relied upon to draw the moral. I believe that the Senate can be relied on to supply the means of action and save the country from disaster."

ARMED NEUTRALITY MOVES ON TOWARD OPEN WAR.

The response of the country to the appeal of the President was immediate and impressive. Mass meetings were held to condemn the action of the "willful" Senators. Societies adopted resolutions of protest and the legislatures of a number of states pledged their support to the President. Impressed by this outburst of public feeling the Senate, in special session, modified its rules so that a measure

neutrality could obviously not continue any great length of time. Either Germany must abandon her policy of submarine ruthlessness or a clash was certain to result. On March 19, news was received that three American ships had been sunk within twenty-four hours with the loss of fifteen lives. From all parts of the country came demands for immediate and decisive action.

Fortified by these expressions of public opinion the President, on March 21, summoned Congress to meet in special session on April 2 "to receive a communication from the Executive on grave questions of national policy which should be taken immediately

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under consideration." As the momentous day approached there was increasing evidence of popular enthusiasm. Mass-meetings were called for the purpose of adopting patriotic resolutions. Numbers of prominent persons went to Washington for the historic event. On the other hand a group of pacifists also appeared to make a final demonstration against

"With a profound sense of the solemn and even tragical character of the step I am taking and of the grave responsibilities which it involves, but in unhesitating obedience to what I deem my constitutional duty, I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the Government and people



THE FIRST UNITED STATES SOLDIERS IN LONDON

For the first time in history United States soldiers marched through London on August 15, 1917. They were reviewed by the King, the War Cabinet adjourned to observe the spectacle, and the streets were crowded with interested and friendly spectators. Here they are seen marching through Bird Cage Walk to their camp.

© London Daily Mail

entering the war. At 8:30 in the evening of April 2, the President entered the hall of the House of Representatives. He was greeted with the greatest enthusiasm. Nearly every member in the great audience carried an American flag. With an earnestness and dignity which the gravity of the occasion called for the President read his war message.

PRESIDENT WILSON'S MEMORABLE WAR MESSAGE TO CONGRESS.

Reviewing Germany's acts since the renewal of unrestricted submarine warfare and characterizing them as "warfare against mankind," he said:

of the United States; that it formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it and that it take immediate steps not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defense, but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the Government of the German Empire to terms and to end the war."

The President then indicated some of the things which he considered essential to be done in order to make our participation in the war effective. These included the extension of financial aid to the nations at war with

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Germany, the development and organization of our industries to make them most effective for conduct of the war, the strengthening of the navy and the expansion of the army to at least five hundred thousand men at once with additional forces to be raised "upon the principle of universal liability to service." In defraying the expenses of the war the President suggested that as large a proportion as possible should be borne by taxation.

WAR ONLY A STEP TOWARD A NEW WORLD ORDER.

While the illegal actions of the German Government were a sufficient justification for our entrance into the war the President desired to look beyond questions of self interest to the more fundamental question of the defense of democratic ideals and the organization of a new world order. Turning to these objects he said:

"My own thought has not been driven from its habitual and normal course by the unhappy events of the last two months, and I do not believe that the thought of the nation has been altered or clouded by them. I have exactly the same things in mind now that I had in mind when I addressed the Senate on the twenty-second of January last; the same that I had in mind when I addressed the Congress on the third of February and on the twenty-sixth of February. Our object now, as then, is to vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world as against selfish and autocratic power and to set up amongst the really free and self-governed peoples of the world such a concert of purpose and of action as will henceforth ensure the observance of these principles.

"Neutrality is no longer feasible or desirable where the peace of the world is involved and the freedom of its peoples, and the menace to that peace and freedom lies in the existence of autocratic governments backed by organized force which is controlled wholly by their will, not by the will of their people. We have seen the last of neutrality in such circumstances. We are at the beginning of an age in which it will be insisted that the same

standards of conduct and of responsibility for wrong done shall be observed among nations and their governments that are observed among the individual citizens of civilized states."

"WE HAVE NO QUARREL WITH THE GERMAN PEOPLE."

The President made it clear that our quarrel was with the German government not the German people. "We have no quarrel with the German people. We have no feeling toward them but one of sympathy and friendship. It was not upon their impulse that their Government acted in entering the war. It was not with their previous knowledge or approval. It was a war determined upon as wars used to be determined upon in the old, unhappy days when peoples were nowhere consulted by their rulers and wars were provoked and waged in the interest of dynasties or of little groups of ambitious men who were accustomed to use their fellowmen as pawns and tools.

"We are now about to accept the gage of battle with this natural foe of liberty and shall, if necessary, spend the whole force of the nation to check and nullify its pretensions and its power. We are glad, now that we see the facts with no veil of false pretense about them, to fight thus for the ultimate peace of the world and for the liberation of its peoples, the German peoples included; for the rights of nations great and small and the privilege of men everywhere to choose their way of life and obedience.

"THE WORLD MUST BE MADE SAFE FOR DEMOCRACY."

"The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of mankind. We shall be satisfied when these have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them.

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"It is a distressing and oppressive duty, gentlemen of the Congress, which I have performed in thus addressing you. There are, it may be, many months of fiery trial and sacrifice ahead of us. It is a fearful thing to lead this great peaceful people into war, into the most terrible and disastrous of wars, civilization itself seeming to be in the balance.

had taken. The alliance of the Russian autocracy with the democracies of the west had been an anomaly. It had weakened the contention of the Entente that they were fighting to maintain democratic ideals. But the Russian Revolution, which occurred some two weeks before the entrance of the United States into the war, left Germany as the one great stronghold of autoc-



GENERAL PERSHING ARRIVING AT BOULOGNE

On his arrival at Boulogne, June 13, 1917, General Pershing was met by a delegation including M. Besnard, Under Secretary of State for War, and the one-armed veteran, General Pelletier, who had been designated to attend him. General Pershing is here passing in review the sailors assigned as part of the guard of honor.

© Picture, Kadel & Herbert

"But the right is more precious than peace, and we shall fight for the things which we have always carried nearest our hearts,—for democracy, for the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own governments, for the rights and liberties of small nations, for a universal dominion of right by such a concert of free peoples as shall bring peace and safety to all nations and make the world itself at last free."

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION ADDS FORCE TO THE MESSAGE.

Events in Russia had given added force to the position which the President

racy in the world. With truth could the President then proclaim that the struggle was between the two antagonistic principles of autocracy and democracy.

CONGRESS VOTES FOR WAR BY AN OVERWHELMING MAJORITY.

Following the reading of the President's Message resolutions were introduced in both houses of Congress declaring that a state of war had been thrust upon the United States by Germany. The resolution passed the Senate April 4, by a vote of 82 to 6. The six negative votes were cast by Senators La Follette, Gronna and

Norris, Republicans; and Stone, Lane and Vardaman, Democrats. In the House of Representatives after an all day debate the resolution passed April 6, by a vote of 373 to 50, nine members not voting. Of the negative votes 16 were Democrats, 32 Republicans, 1 Socialist, and 1 Independent. The resolution was signed by President Wilson the same day.

Among the nations at war with Germany the entrance of the United States into the struggle created a profound impression. From both official and private sources came expressions of deepest feeling and appreciation. President Poincaré declared that "the great American Republic" had proven "faithful to its ideals and its traditions." Mr. Asquith, speaking before the House of Commons, said, "I do not use language of flattery or exaggeration when I say it is one of the most disinterested acts in history."

THE EFFECT OF THE DECLARATION ON THE UNITED STATES.

Throughout the United States the news was received with a calm dignity which befitted the momentous character of the action. There was neither tumult nor hysteria, but everywhere there was evidence of a deep and sincere patriotism.

The immediate effects of the entrance of the United States into the war were moral rather than material. Not for many months were the tremendous resources of the country fully prepared to make their force felt in Europe. But the moral value of the action was immediate and profound. To the war-weary British and French it brought new hope at a time when the situation was particularly discouraging.

Following the declaration of war against Germany, Austria-Hungary broke diplomatic relations with the United States, April 8, but the United States did not formally declare war against her until December 7, 1917. With the other two members of the Teutonic alliance, Turkey and Bulgaria, no declaration of war was made, and diplomatic intercourse was not suspended with the latter. Turkey broke relations on April 20, 1917.

THE ACTION OF OTHER STATES OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE.

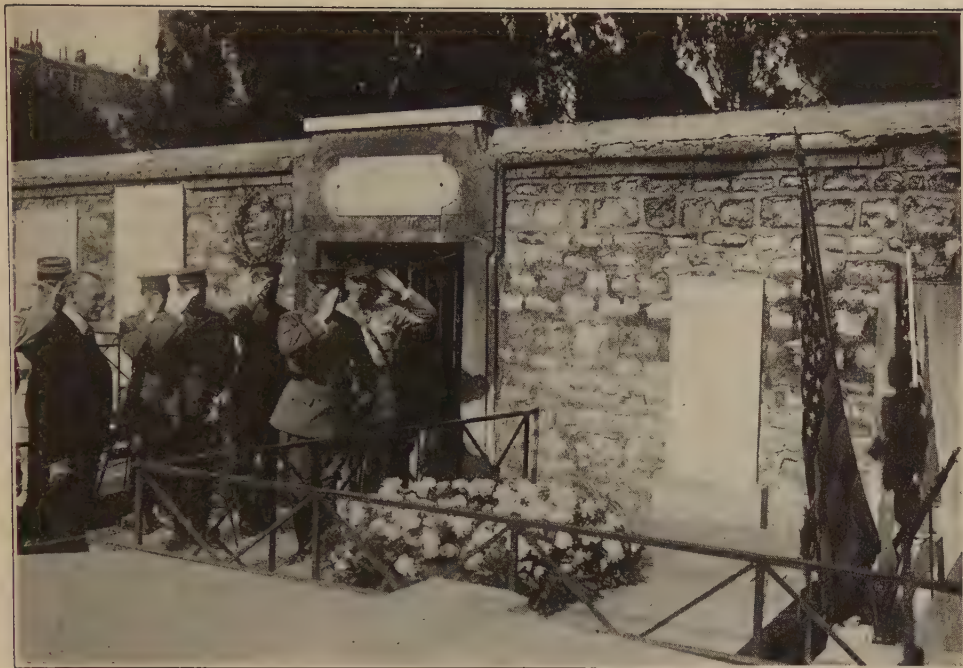
Influenced by the action of the United States, Cuba immediately declared war without a dissenting voice. The President of Panama had previously been given authority to declare war when he should deem it advisable, and at once issued a proclamation, placing Panama beside the United States. Brazil severed diplomatic relations on April 10, and declared war in October. Haiti declared war in September, and Guatemala, Nicaragua and Costa Rica followed in 1918.

Bolivia severed relations on April 13, Honduras in May, San Salvador and Santo Domingo in June, Uruguay and Peru in October, and Ecuador in December. Mexico declared for neutrality, but was really unfriendly to the United States. Chile, Argentina, Venezuela, Paraguay and Colombia for various reasons remained neutral, though public sentiment in some of these countries, so far as it was articulate, was strongly against Germany.

FRENCH AND BRITISH MISSIONS VISIT THE UNITED STATES.

Soon after the Declaration of War, several Allied Commissions visited the United States. The British, headed by Mr. Arthur J. Balfour, which reached Washington April 22, and the French, headed by ex-Premier Viviani and Marshal Joffre, which arrived April 25, excited the greatest enthusiasm. Both M. Viviani and Mr. Balfour addressed the House of Representatives by invitation and the former addressed the Senate also. Both Commissions visited the tomb of Washington at Mt. Vernon where impressive exercises were held.

Both then made visits to some of the principal cities of the country and were everywhere received with great enthusiasm. Marshal Joffre was greeted with especial warmth and his frank honesty deepened the regard in which he was already held in Chicago, St. Louis, Kansas City, Springfield, Ill., and Philadelphia. In New York the city was elaborately decorated to receive the missions, and dinners and receptions were offered.



"LAFAYETTE! WE ARE HERE"

On the afternoon of June 15, 1917, General Pershing with members of his staff and French officers visited the tomb of Lafayette at the Picpus Cemetery, and laid a wreath upon the grave of the man who had left home and family and crossed the ocean to fight for the freedom of the struggling American colonies.



RECEPTION GIVEN TO GENERAL PERSHING IN PARIS

After showing himself to the people of Paris from the balcony of the Military Club, this picture was made. General Pelletier is seen immediately behind Madame Joffre, who is seen between General Pershing and Marshal Joffre. On the other side of General Pershing is General Foch, not yet recognized as the man of the hour. General Dubail and his little son are to the right of Marshal Joffre.

Upper picture © Kadel & Herbert

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Meanwhile the technical members were at work with the corresponding American officers, or officials, giving them the benefit of the knowledge they had gained in the hard school of experience. This instruction was of untold benefit, and enabled the War and Navy Departments to avoid making many mistakes, and at the same time showed how they could best co-operate with their associates in the war. Several of the officers remained

as, first, money, second, food, third, raw materials (both of these dependent upon shipping) and finally, men.

Congress at once went to work upon the problems. The first loan act providing for a popular loan of seven billion dollars passed the House April 14, and the Senate on April 17 without a dissenting voice. Of this, three billion dollars was to be loaned to the nations of the Entente. Two billion dollars was offered for popular subscription on



WOMAN'S MOTOR CORPS DRILLING.

The women of the United States sought ways to help, and numerous motor corps were organized to drive ambulances, act as chauffeurs for officers, carry messages, or transport soldiers. This picture shows the Woman's Motor Corps in their smart uniforms drilling at Fort Totten, under direction of Lieutenant Colonel Paul Loesser.

Times Photo Service

as technical advisers after their chiefs had returned home by way of Canada. Later M. André Tardieu and Lord Northcliffe were appointed special commissioners by France and Great Britain respectively.

WHAT WERE THE MOST IMPORTANT NEEDS OF THE ALLIES?

The extent and form of American participation was next to be settled. Some had supposed that food and raw materials, together with perhaps some naval co-operation would be all that would be expected from the United States. President Wilson soon indicated, however, that all the resources of the country would be thrown into the scale. The Allied needs were stated

May 15, and was oversubscribed by fifty per cent. The first loan to an Entente nation was \$200,000,000 to Great Britain, one of the largest checks ever drawn, and before the middle of July the total loans to Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy and Belgium amounted to more than \$1,300,000,000, and these loans were continued. Meanwhile the House Committee on Ways and Means worked upon a revenue bill greatly increasing taxation.

THE COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE BEGINS ITS WORK.

A Council of National Defense had been created consisting of the Secretaries of War, Navy, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and of Labor, with an



ON THE WAY TO CAMP UPTON AT YAPHANK

Selective Service men from New York City were sent to Camp Upton at Yaphank, Long Island. These men were sent by Local Boards 174 and 175 and their expressions show the spirit in which the great majority of the young men of the United States approached the duty laid upon them.

New York Times Photo Service



SELECTIVE SERVICE MEN FROM CHICAGO PARADING

The term "conscript" has never been popular in the United States. In this war, the term Selective Service men was used in preference and every effort was made to do them honor. Here are shown men of some of the early drafts from Chicago on their way to camp, parading before a crowd which packed the sidewalks. The National Guard is drawn up on the left of the picture.

Underwood & Underwood

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Advisory Commission consisting first of Daniel Willard, chairman, Transportation and Communication; Howard E. Coffin, Munitions and Manufacturing (including standardization) and Industrial Relations; Julius Rosenwald, Supplies (including clothing), etc.; Bernard M. Baruch, Raw Materials, Minerals and Metals; Dr. Hollis Godfrey, Engineering and Education; Samuel Gompers, Labor, including conserva-

sands of "dollar-a-year" men, many of whom rendered services of inestimable value. The office of Food Controller was filled by the appointment of Herbert C. Hoover, who had won fame by his administration of the Commission for Relief in Belgium, and President H. A. Garfield of Williams College, himself a son of President Garfield and formerly an attorney, was appointed Fuel Administrator.



MEN IN TRAINING BUILDING ROADS

The heavy trucks carrying supplies soon cut the roads around the camps into holes and mud. One of the first things to be done was to construct permanent roads which would stand up under the traffic. Many of the men were not accustomed to manual labor. These are members of Company D, 22d Engineers.

Int. News Service

tion of health and welfare of workers; Dr. Franklin Martin, Medicine and Surgery, including general sanitation.

This body began immediately to make a survey and to organize the resources of the country. They called business and professional men of the country to their aid and thousands responded to the call. Then began an interesting feature of the war. Many men left their private affairs and sought to serve the government gratis. In order to be enrolled it was necessary that a salary be attached to the position. Therefore we have the thou-

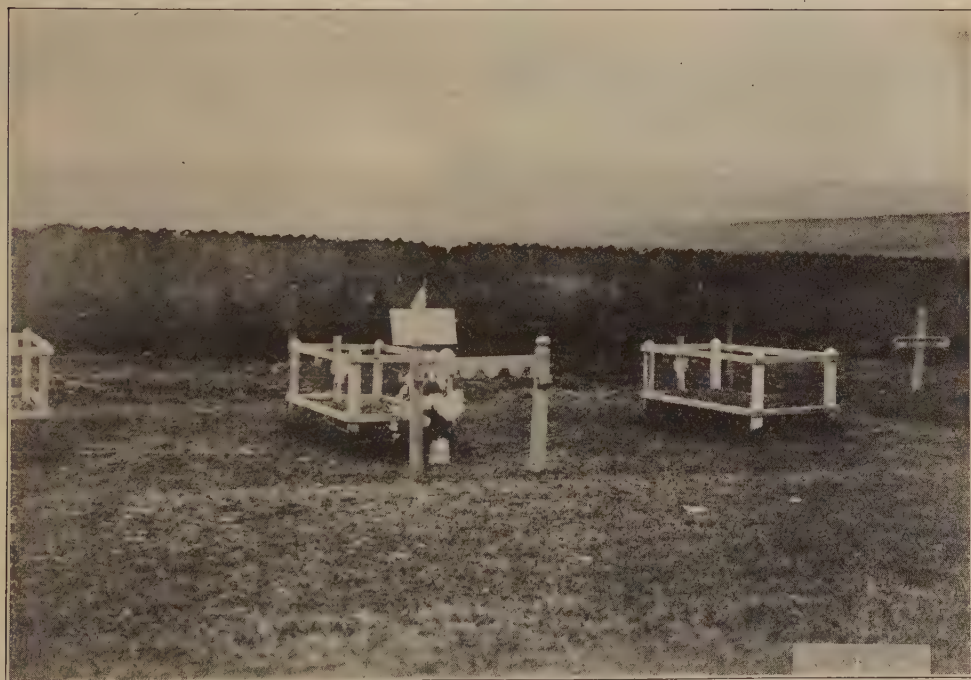
THE SELECTIVE SERVICE ACT BRINGS THE WAR TO ALL.

After some hesitation, Congress passed the Selective Service Act on May 18. The authorized strength of the regular army was increased to 293,000 and the National Guard to 625,000 men, and men might enlist for the war and not for a fixed term. More important, however, were the provisions calling for a registration of all men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one. From these a first draft of 500,000 men was to be drawn for the new National Army and a



THE FIRST AMERICAN GUN FIRED IN FRANCE

Early in the morning on October 23, 1917, this gun, belonging to Battery C of the 6th Field Artillery, was drawn forward and fired. The shot was aimed in the direction of Berlin—not at any definite target. The gun then ranked as an historic “relic,” and was shipped home to West Point for preservation and exhibition.



GRAVES OF THE FIRST AMERICANS KILLED IN FRANCE

The first American battle losses occurred in a German trench raid on the night of November 3, 1917. Three men, Corporal Gresham of Indiana, and Privates Enright, of Pennsylvania, and Hay, of Iowa, were killed. They were buried with the honors of war at the village of Bathlemont, and the French erected these temporary memorials over their graves.

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second instalment of the same size when needed. Men might also be drafted into the Regulars and the National Guard. Local and district boards composed of civilians appointed by the President had entire control of exemptions, in accordance with the provisions of the law. The President fixed June 5 as Registration Day, on which day the young manhood of the country was to report. The total registration was 9,659,382.

The drawing to determine the order in which the registrants should be called before their Local Boards was held in Washington on July 20, 1917. The plan was simple. The registrants in each district had been numbered in order as they appeared. Since the largest district had registered something less than 10,500 men, that number of capsules each containing a number had been prepared. From a large urn, blindfolded tellers drew capsules until all were exhausted. The first number drawn was "258". This meant that Number 258 in every district in which so many had registered was to be the first man called before his Local Board for examination. The second number was 2,522 and the third, 9,613. Where these high numbers did not appear in the smaller districts they were ignored, and the next number which did appear taken. These "master sheets" containing the numbers in the order in which they were drawn governed absolutely the order in which men were called. The quota which each state and district was to furnish depended upon the population.

THE OFFICERS' TRAINING CAMPS GRADUATE THOUSANDS OF CANDIDATES.

Meanwhile sixteen Officers' Training Camps where candidates for commissions could undergo a period of intensive training for three months were established in different parts of the country corresponding to the districts into which the country was divided for the purpose of training. They were soon filled with 40,000 young men of whom more than 27,000 received commissions. A second series immediately followed. In January, 1918, a third series drawing candidates

chiefly from the army itself was held, and later a fourth series.

Camps to train the citizen soldiers were established, sixteen for the National Guard and the same number for the National Army as the forces raised under the Selective Service Act were called. In the National Guard camps the men were housed in tents, though warehouses, mess halls and the like were of wood. The National Army camps or cantonments were wooden cities, each of which housed nearly forty thousand men. The number of men in a division was increased, and a whole division was trained in each. For reasons of climate the National Guard camps were generally placed in the South, and the National Army camps were placed as far South as the limits of the department would allow. They were named for former military leaders of the United States. It may be stated here that August 7, 1918, an order was issued abolishing all distinctions and consolidating Regulars, Guard and National Army into the United States Army.

WHY WERE TROOPS SENT TO FRANCE SO EARLY?

It had been understood to be the plan of the General Staff to train a large army upon this side and transfer it to France as a unit. Suddenly it was announced that Major-General John J. Pershing, who had won a reputation in Cuba, in the Philippines, and as the leader of the force which pursued Villa into Mexico, had been appointed commander of the American Expeditionary Force, and had arrived in England, June 8. Soon the news came that American troops had arrived in France, June 26, 27, and that others would follow. It was later learned that special units of Engineers and other technical troops had preceded these.

For this sudden change of plan Marshal Joffre was largely responsible, as it was learned later. France was at that time struggling with that phenomenon known as "defeatism" which has been discussed elsewhere (Chapter XXXI). The French people had suffered cruelly and were war-weary and despondent. Marshal Joffre declared

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that the sight of American troops, no matter how few, as tangible evidence of America's intentions would have a tonic effect upon French morale. The troops sent were the First Division of Regulars and a regiment of Marines. Their parade in Paris on July 4, excited great enthusiasm and the expected effect was produced. Before the end of 1917 the First and Second Divisions of Regulars and three Guard Divisions had reached France and were in training there. These were the Twenty-sixth, or New England Division, the Forty-second, or Rainbow, drawn from every section of the coun-

Commander J. K. Taussig; arrived at Queenstown, Ireland, and took their share of patrol, convoy and anti-submarine work. They were followed by other ships of various kinds, the story of which is told elsewhere. Before formal declaration of war, Rear-Admiral William S. Sims, President of the Naval War College, had been sent to Great Britain to act as the representative of the United States Navy. When the United States entered the war he was raised to the temporary rank of Vice-Admiral and given large authority. Meanwhile recruiting for the Navy was brisk.



ENGINEERS ERECTING A CANTONMENT IN FRANCE

Housing two million men is a difficult task. Here a cantonment for special purposes is being erected in France by the engineers. The lumber was cut to fit in the United States and properly marked. Where possible, without taking up more space on shipboard, the pieces were fastened together before shipment. Times Photo Service

try, and the Forty-first or Sunset, drawn from the Far West. American soldiers entered the trenches in a quiet sector on October 22, 1917, and the next morning Battery C of the Sixth Field Artillery fired the first shot. Two Americans were wounded on October 28, and on November 3 the first casualties were suffered. Three men, Corporal James B. Gresham of Evansville, Ind., Thomas F. Enright of Pittsburgh, Pa., and Merle D. Hay, of Glidden, Iowa, were killed. Eleven others were wounded and the same number taken prisoners.

AMERICAN DESTROYERS APPEAR AT ONCE IN EUROPEAN WATERS.

Immediately upon the recognition of a state of war, preparations were made for naval co-operation and on May 4, the first flotilla of destroyers, under

The Shipping Board sought to increase the tonnage by building both wood and iron ships, in new yards and in old ones which had been revived. On December 1, 1917, the Emergency Fleet Corporation (the construction agency of the Shipping Board) had under construction 884 ships.

By the end of 1917 nearly two million men were in training in France or the United States, and the industries of the country were making every effort to provide for the wants of these young men. In spite of the submarine, American troopships sailed in safety to Europe, and at no time did the menace seriously interfere with supplies and food for them, or for the Entente nations. The American people had recognized that the war was their own, and acted accordingly.



A NATIONAL GUARD REGIMENT LEAVING FOR CAMP

The Twelfth Regiment, National Guard, of New York is shown parading on Fifth Avenue on its way to Camp Wadsworth, Spartanburg, South Carolina, where it became a part of the Twenty-Seventh Division. Later this division won glory over its service along with the Thirtieth, as a part of the British Army.



ANOTHER NATIONAL GUARD REGIMENT ON FIFTH AVENUE

The Seventh Regiment has a long and distinguished record in New York. For a long time it wore a special uniform very much like that still worn by the West Point cadets, but later adopted the blue and then the khaki. This regiment also became a part of the Twenty-Seventh Division, commanded by Major-General John F. O'Ryan, who was in command of the New York National Guard before the war.

Pictures, Times Photo Service



A Ghurka Draft in Mesopotamia

CHAPTER XLVI

The Capture of Bagdad

KUT IS AVENGED AND THE GREAT CITY OF THE CALIPHS IS TAKEN

IN another chapter we left the Mesopotamian Army, at the end of 1916, fully equipped for whatever advance its commander-in-chief might determine upon. "Briefly put," wrote General Maude in his official narrative of the fighting, "the enemy's plan appeared to be to contain our main forces on the Tigris, while a vigorous campaign, which would directly threaten India, was being developed in Persia. There were indications, too, of an impending move down the Euphrates towards Nasiriyeh. It seemed clear from the outset that the true solution of the problem was a resolute offensive, with concentrated forces, on the Tigris, thus effectively threatening Bagdad, the centre from which the enemy's columns were operating."

THE TURKISH DEFENSES ALONG THE TIGRIS STRENGTHENED.

During the autumn the enemy had not been idle but had strengthened his defenses, particularly the Sanna-i-yat position, where he judged attack would come. In addition to his six lines there he had drawn a regular network of defenses stretching back fifteen miles to Kut. On the right or south bank of the river he deemed himself impregnable by reason of a bridgehead on the Shatt-el-Hai. Nevertheless, the British Army had the advantage, for if an attack were delivered on

Sanna-i-yat its right flank would be protected by the Suwaicha Marsh, and if the attack were made on the line of the Shatt-el-Hai the enemy would be fighting with his "communications parallel," which would imperil his retreat. Maude decided on this latter course, and to mislead the Turk opened with an assault on the position at Sanna-i-yat. Then, when the Turkish troops massed here, the weight of the offensive swung against the defenses covering the Shatt-el-Hai.

GENERAL MAUDE'S PLAN OF ATTACK IN TWO COLUMNS.

The attacking troops were in two columns: those on the left bank under Lieutenant-General Sir A. S. Cobbe, V.C.; those chosen to make the surprise march on the right under Lieutenant-General Sir W. R. Marshall. Cobbe opened a bombardment of the Sanna-i-yat positions December 13, and the following night Marshall's column concentrated before Es-Sinn. The next morning the Hai River was crossed in two places and the column moved north on both sides of the river to within three miles of Kut. Heavy rain fell during the latter part of December, but activities were not suspended; the light railway was extended to the Hai, more pontoon bridges thrown across, and successful raids made upon Turkish communications. Though the bom-

bardment of the Sanna-i-yat positions continued, the foe was alive to the threat against his right rear and made dispositions to guard against it.

Maude's first objective had been attained; his next step was to clear the remaining Turkish trench systems on the right of the Tigris. Kut lies in a



THE CONQUEROR OF BAGDAD

Lieutenant-General Sir Frederick Stanley Maude, was greatly beloved of the staff and men of the Mesopotamian Force, whose gallantry and endurance ensured success in the campaign so thoroughly organized by their commander.

loop of the river which, immediately above and below the city, makes two deep curves known respectively as the Dahra and Khadairi Bends. Across both of these, and especially at the point where the Hai enters the Tigris the Turks were strongly intrenched. General Maude described the Dahra Bend as "bristling with trenches." At Khadairi the enemy had three lines across a 2,400-yard loop so that both flanks rested on the river, and the guns on the north bank could sweep the assault with enfilading fire.

THE REMAINING TURKISH DEFENSES ON THE RIGHT BANK ARE TAKEN.

The British attack began January 5 on a narrow front of some 600 yards and lasted for a fortnight. The Turk fought stubbornly and with great courage, his sole communications, the flooded Tigris in the rear, bridged only by a few pontoons. No attempt was made to rush his positions, for it would have wasted men, but slowly the British artillery pounded out his trenches and threw forward their own, until at last the restricted area became untenable under fierce gunfire and what was left of the defenders slipped across the river on the night of January 8-9. Found upon a prisoner were the picturesque words of the Turkish commander congratulating his troops upon their steadfast valor in the face of bloody losses sustained under bombardment: "The Corps Commander kisses the eyes of all ranks and thanks them."

There still remained upon the right bank of the Tigris the Turkish trenches astride the Hai River and those across the Dahra Bend, strongly made and protected on three sides from over the river by artillery and nests of machine guns. It took twenty days of obstinately contested fighting to force these lines, for the Turk was battling as one resisting the invasion of his soil. The Brit-

ish and Indian troops were possessed however with the grim determination to wipe out there on that site, beneath the walls of Kut, the memory of their tragic failure to succor the garrison, ten months before. February 15 there was an almost general surrender of two enemy brigades,—2,200 men, a large amount of artillery, war material and medical equipment.

THE MAIN EFFORTS ARE NEXT TO BE MADE.

In two months' strenuous fighting the preliminaries had been successfully

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carried through: now the Turks held only Kut and the left bank of the river. The Sanna-i-yat lines were the key to the city, and the Mesopotamian Army had experienced the cost of frontal attacks against these—even before they had been reinforced in the autumn. Rather than pay this price again the British commander determined, if possible, to cut the Turkish communica-

To take the latter first. The Turks were, of course, keenly alive to any attempted crossing of the Tigris. Their guards patrolled the low banks, their artillery swept every yard of the opposite shore, and the current was running strongly downstream. The odds against traversing a wide stretch of water in open pontoons were serious, and General Maude made elaborate



WHERE THE POPULATION IS AMPHIBIOUS

Tigris and Euphrates unite their waters to form the Shatt-el-Arab and it is at the mouth of this waterway that the troops are seen disembarking. In Mesopotamia as in Egypt football "shorts" were regulation wear, and the soubriquet of "red knees" applied to the new arrival recalls the "red-necks" of the Boer War.

tions above Kut, and so to imperil the enemy's retreat that he would be forced to evacuate the town. For the success of this action it was necessary to divert some of the Turkish strength and activity to Sanna-i-yat. To make this diversion effective, a feint was not sufficient. No mere knocking at the front door would cause the wide-awake owner of the house to leave his back door open. Accordingly, dispositions for concerted and simultaneous action were made against Sanna-i-yat and upon the Shumran Bend immediately above the Dahra loop, and curving in the opposite direction.

feints at crossing the river at Kut and Magasis, and allowed his preparations to be covertly observed by the enemy who duly noted the creaking of carts and splashing of pontoons—in the wrong places. By day and night, too, the guns thundered against Sanna-i-yat, then paused significantly as though to allow of infantry advance, while time after time the Turk braced himself to repulse the bayonet charge which never came. Uncertainty then as to direction, a diverting of troops, and a certain lowering of morale were obtained before the actual onslaught was made.

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THE ATTEMPT TO CROSS THE TIGRIS AT SHUMRAN BEND.

The crossing at the south end of the Shumran Bend was to be made at three points. At No. 1 Ferry the Norfolks made the attempt. All night the pioneers labored to prepare the ground, and at early dawn, before the mists disappeared under the hot sun, the pontoons were lifted over the embankment and took the water silently. Not until they were within fifty yards of the

the story afterwards in the mud," wrote Mr. Edmund Candler, Official Eye Witness. "Wherever a keel had scored the Turkish shore there were Ghurka dead and dead Hants rowers who had been lifted from the boats. Many of the pontoons still lay stranded in the mud. One had a hole in its side, a direct hit by a shell, and nine dead in it. And dead Ghurkas lay tumbled about the parapet; some had pitched forward and lay sprawling over it with



FROM KUT TO TEKRI

This map shows the bends of the river east and west of Kut where the struggle for the position was finally decided. The British pursued the Turks upstream but halted at Aziziye for reorganization. After crossing the Diala, Baghdad was entered from two sides. Endeavoring to cut off the Turkish XIII Corps the Russians advanced from Persia and met the British at Kizil Robat but the enemy escaped and fell back on Tekrit.

opposite shore were they discovered by a sentinel whose rifle shot across the desert silence gave signal for a fusillade. Soon the watchers on the right bank were drawing in the first returning pontoon with its freight of wounded, while others took their places in the boat and shot out across the current under a hail of bullets which raised spray upon the water. Meanwhile, at No. 2 Ferry, a thousand yards downstream, the 2nd and 9th Ghurkas were having a still hotter crossing. If enough of the crew survived to bring the boat to land they had then to face the Turks who lined the banks and threw grenades as the landing was made. "One could read

the impetus of the fall. Beyond were dead Turks who had counter-attacked from inland."

So fierce was the artillery fire against the lower ferries that they had to be abandoned. But at the upper ferry by 7:30 A. M. three companies of the Norfolks and some 150 Ghurkas were entrenched. At 8 o'clock galloping mules brought up the first load of bridging and a long stream of pontoons on carts came up at a swinging canter. By 10 A. M. one could stand out in the stream on the fifteenth pontoon, and in six hours the bridge was open for traffic. Troops and transport poured across, and the infantry advancing to a ridge astride the bend swept the



EN ROUTE TO BAGDAD BY CAMEL TRAIN

Vehicular transport being impossible in this country, the British forces organized camel convoys modeled upon the caravans which from time immemorial have assured communication in the east. Water transport of course is much easier in Mesopotamia than land, and was chiefly relied upon to supply the armies.



AT RAMADIYA DUMP

British soldiers inspecting material left behind by the Turk when he hastily evacuated in September, 1917. When the enemy retreated from Bagdad part of his force had established itself at Ramadiya upon the Euphrates, whence in the general clearing operations undertaken around the city he was dislodged after the hot months were over.

British Official

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enemy before them. The dead in the rudderless pontoons swept on down the Tigris towards the great waters, but their sleep was peaceful, for their sacrifice had not been made in vain.

THE SUCCESSFUL ATTACK UPON SANNA-I-YAT.

Meanwhile, in concerted action thirteen miles downstream, the assault against Sanna-i-yat had begun. To

dug themselves in an old water-course awaiting the counter-attack, which swept forward three times and left dreadful harvest of death on the burning alkaline soil.

On the 23rd, the British pushed on to the fourth line, already a veritable shambles—the dead and dying half-buried in choking sand and gun-evoked litter. It was evident that the foe was



A STORY-TELLER IN THE BAZAAR AT KUT

Shows an Arab boy telling local Arabs of the anniversary of the British recapturing Kut town. In all probability the tale lost nothing in the relating for the Arab is gifted with vivid imagination and indulges in flowery diction. It is evident from the faces of his listeners that he is possessed of some histrionic power.

the "Chinese bombardment" of several weeks succeeded, on the morning of February 22, the real attack delivered by the 19th Brigade. The first and second line of Turkish trenches were only forty yards apart. The third, some two hundred yards behind, was lightly held on the day of attack, but behind this again there ran a succession of lines with a clear field of fire. To ensure surprise the barbed wire was all standing in front of the Seaforths' and 92nds' trenches, ready to be swung back as they advanced. They found the first trench deserted, and the second filled in. They hastily

in retreat; the fifth and sixth lines fell with barely a casualty on the 25th, and the brigade swept unresisted on to Kut, which they found empty. When the Shumran Bend was captured and his left wing in danger of being cut off, Khalil Pasha ordered a withdrawal towards Bagdad, and to ensure the retirement from Sanna-i-yat formed a strong flank guard to hold the northern end of the peninsula in the Dahra Bend until his men had passed upstream.

THE TURKS IN RETREAT TOWARD BAGDAD ARE PURSUED.

Pursuit followed. The enemy's forces were on the whole well-handled, and he



BRITISH TROOPS ENTER BAGDAD

The entry of the British forces into the "City of the Caliphs" was undramatic. The populace lined the streets and acclaimed their coming, but the British soldier had experienced the treachery of the native of the East and his vociferous clamor rang hollow to the paraders through the dim and blue city.

Central News Service



WHILE SOME WORKED OTHERS FOUND TIME TO PLAY

Some of General Marshall's men bathing near Narin Kupri Bridge while sappers repaired it. The enemy as he retreated had blown up the central span in an effort to hold up pursuit. One of the alleviations of the trials of the men in this hot and dusty land was the bathing in the Tigris and tributary streams which was encouraged by official provision.

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escaped destruction (though he lost severely in prisoners and abandoned material) by fighting strong rear-guard actions in fortified *nullahs*. In that flat country he had the advantage for his gun-pits were hidden, while those of his pursuers were in the open. When Sanna-i-yat fell, the British naval flotilla was able to come upstream and formed the left wing of the advance column,

in towards the river, and the machine guns played havoc with the transport and gun-teams. More guns were abandoned. Our horse artillery got on to them at the same time. The next morning we found Turkish dead on the road. There was every sign of panic and rout—bullocks still alive and unyoked, entangled in the traces of a trench motor carriage, broken



IN ANCIENT BABYLONIA—HOME OF A VANISHED CIVILIZATION

The ruins of Ctesiphon, scene of General Townshend's victory in the first advance upon Bagdad, but from which he had to retire because the Turks were strongly reinforced. In the second advance the British found Ctesiphon strongly fortified, but it had been evacuated by the enemy who had fallen back behind the Diala River.

while the cavalry spread out to the north. The gunboats lengthened the striking arm of the offensive considerably, firing first at the Turkish Army on the bank and then reserving its ammunition to destroy the Turkish shipping. On the morning of February 26, H. M. S. Tarantula, Mantis and Moth passed the infantry at full steam and came under sharp fire at the Nahr Kellak bend, so that the casualties amounted to one-fifth of the forces engaged.

"Swinging round the bend at sixteen knots," writes Eye Witness, "the fleet reached a point where the road comes

wheels, cast equipment, overturned limbers, hundreds of live shells of various calibres scattered over the country for miles. Either the gunners had cast off freight to lighten the limbers or they had been too rushed to close up the limber boxes. Every bend of the road told its tale of confusion and flight."

THE BRITISH OUTRAN THEIR GUNS AND SUPPLIES.

About the middle of the afternoon the fleet broke off its firing at the retreating army to save its ammunition for the enemy's shipping. Of these several surrendered when they came under

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range, including the armed tug Sumana, captured at Kut, and the Firefly, taken in the retreat from Ctesiphon. Thus the intervention of the naval arm changed the Turkish retreat into a rout and soon his troops were spread out rabble-wise on a wide front instead of in column of four.

At Aziziyeh, half-way to Bagdad and fifty miles from Kut, pursuit was broken off, for the three days' advance had

Ctesiphon, strongly intrenched, was left unoccupied as the Turk fell back on the Diala river, destroying the bridge which crosses it at its junction with the Tigris. At this stage the pursuit divided, the cavalry and 7th Division and 35th Brigade crossing to the right or west bank to work around Shawa Khan, where the enemy had a force covering the approach to Bagdad from south and south-west.



INDIAN TROOPS IN BAGDAD

As was perhaps inevitable when the Turks evacuated the city there was much looting in the bazaars. For a long time the municipal affairs and finances of Bagdad had been in parlous state. With the advent of the conquerors looting was stopped, firm local administration under military supervision set up, reconstruction of streets and reorganizing of sanitary affairs begun.

completely disorganized the transport and left all light railways behind. For a week the army paused until March 5, when General Marshall advanced to Zeur, some 18 miles, and the cavalry rode on to Laj, where in a blinding dust-storm they attacked the enemy rearguard which had intrenched. When the pursuit began it had been hoped that in open fighting at last the cavalry would come into its own. These hopes were disappointed because of the hidden guns and fortified *nullahs*. In their place, however, the light armored motor-cars, or "Lambs" as they were christened, achieved some success. That night the enemy withdrew.

GENERAL MARSHALL FORCES THE CROSSING OF THE DIALA.

Experience had demonstrated the value of surprise in storming a river position and Marshall hastened, on the night of the 7th and 8th of March, to make an attempt to cross the Diala. The Turks had posted machine guns very cleverly in the houses on the far bank and sharp moonlight rendered concealment impossible. The first five pontoons were riddled with bullets and drifted downstream. On the following night the houses on the shore were first pounded into dust and then under this blinding pall an attempt was made to ferry troops across at four separate

points. Only one crossing succeeded—a detachment of the North Loyal Lancashires establishing themselves in a *bund* on the far shore, where for twenty-four hours they lay under constant fire. The third attempt was successful on the morning of the 10th, and by noon the bridge was completed, and troops moving on faced the enemy's last position at the Tel Muhammad Ridge.

Although the force which was assaulting the left bank defenses was delayed by numerous *nullahs* which had to be ramped, it was almost continually in touch with the Turkish rearguard, which on the 10th was considerably aided in its withdrawal by a choking dust-storm. Nevertheless, early on the morning of the following day, advance guards of the Black Watch occupied Bagdad railway station and the suburbs on the west of the river, and the enemy was in full retreat upstream. On the 12th, Marshall's column from the right entered Bagdad and was greeted with acclamation by Christian and Jew alike.

WHAT THE CAPTURE OF BAGDAD MEANT IN THE EAST.

To the man in the West the talk of "prestige" has little meaning. Yet it is no exaggeration to say that the most valuable result of the capture of the "city of the Caliphs" was the restoration of British prestige in the bazaars and through the length of the caravan routes in the East. Bagdad was the greatest and most historic city that had yet been taken by the Allies: it had fallen to an army that had suffered and retrieved a great disaster—to an army that from being the most ill-equipped had become perhaps the best. In addition, the material loss to both German and Turk was great: to the former it sounded the knell of a far-reaching ambition, to the latter the loss of a valuable base and of wide territories.

General Maude issued a proclamation to the inhabitants emphasizing the fact that the British entered the city as liberators, not as conquerors. Under their Turkish rulers they had seen the wasting of many of their resources, which it was the hope of the new rulers

to conserve. The commercial tie between the merchants of Bagdad and of Great Britain was old-established, peaceful. The Germans and Turks, on the contrary, had used the city as a centre of intrigue and as a base for political penetration. In other places—notably in Hedjaz and Koweit—the Arab had cast off the Turkish and German yoke, and ceased to be their dupes. Instead of the setting-up of one house against another for selfish aims, the newcomers hoped that in new-gained unity the Arabs might attain self-expression and the fulfillment of their national aspirations.

GENERAL MAUDE PROCEEDS TO MAKE HIS POSITION SECURE.

There had been looting in bazaars and houses as the Turks hastily retired but order was quickly established under the new occupation. With the capture of the city Maude's task was by no means ended. His position had to be secured. To achieve this, four things were necessary: the capture of the railhead of Samarra, the rout of the 18th Corps retreating north of Bagdad, the control of the irrigation of the Tigris and Euphrates north of the city, and the cutting off of the 13th Corps, which was retreating before the Russians from Hamadan. Leaving only sufficient forces in the city to garrison it, the commander-in-chief sent a column up both banks of the Tigris, dispatched a third westward to the Euphrates, and a fourth up the Diala towards Khanikin. The fortunes of the third column may be very briefly told. As the British entered Bagdad the Turks cut the dam above the city, so that the water burst through Akkar Kuf Lake and overflowed to the *bund* which protected the suburbs and railway station on the west of the Tigris. Fortunately, the river was low for the time of year and the *bund* held; the pursuing column entered Feluja, March 19, just too late to cut off the Turkish garrison, which fell back on Ramadiya, twenty-five miles upstream.

Meanwhile, after a seventeen-mile march, the 21st and 28th Brigades of the 7th Division on the right of the Tigris attacked the Turks at Mushadiya.



A PICTURESQUE BRIDGE OF BOATS

This boat bridge, 250 metres long, connects both banks of the Tigris at Bagdad. In the foreground, the gufars—circular boats whose usage dates back to pre-historic days—are nothing but enormous baskets of reeds coated with tar. They serve as ferries from one bank of the Tigris to the other. In the city there are wonderful monuments, vestiges of ancient splendor: mosques with gilded cupolas, fretted minarets, high walls moat-encircled. The most animated part of the town is the bazaar, for Bagdad, situated on the caravan route between Aleppo and Damascus on one side and the Persian Gulf and India on the other, is an important industrial and commercial centre.

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After a stiff fight, with severe casualties and great suffering from thirst (for the troops had had thirty hours' marching and fighting with only the water they had started with), they drove the enemy from the place in precipitate retreat so that airmen on the morning of the 20th reported them spread over a depth of twenty miles. Further advance along the railway, however, was impossible until

left General Baratov just east of Hamadan. As General Maude advanced, the Turks fell back from Hamadan in an endeavor to reach Khanikin, and the Cossacks followed hard upon them. Maude's eastern column advancing up the Diala captured Bahriz and Bakuba. The former place was the end of a mountain road necessary to the Turkish retreat, and by his manoeuvre they were forced to



TWO AND A HALF YEARS IN MESOPOTAMIA

In this map may be followed the story of the Mesopotamian operations from the landing of General Delamain's force in November, 1914, up to General Maude's triumph at Bagdad, March 11, 1917. In it, too, may be seen where Russian pressure on the retreating Turks was exercised from Persia and the Caucasus.

operations on the left bank were equally advanced, and there the Turks were concentrating in order to ward off attack upon their railhead.

THE COMBINED RUSSIAN AND BRITISH EXPEDITION FAILS.

It was hoped that the Russians advancing from Persia and the British up the Diala might seize the 13th Turks Corps in a nutcracker. This hope was not realized. It failed because the political situation that had developed in Russia left Baratov's force starved of reinforcements and supplies, and because of the fine generalship of the Turkish general in charge of the retreating forces. In a former chapter we

abandon their guns and endeavor to cross the mountainous country between Karind and the Upper Diala. In this *impasse* their leadership saved them. Strong rearguards or screens were placed by the Turkish Commander against the weaker Russian forces in the Pia Tak Pass, and against the British on the ridge of the Jebel Hamrin range. While these rearguards held off attack, the main body by way of Khanikin was making for the crossing of the Diala and the road to Mosul.

Thus Maude in the torrid heat of the desert was attacking at Kizil Robot and Deli Abbas, while seventy miles

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COMMUNICATIONS IN MODERN WARFARE

This map illustrates the advantage possessed by the Central Powers over the Allies in respect of communications with the forces fighting in Mesopotamia. From Zeebrugge to Nisibiu, above Bagdad, Germany had 3,000 miles of railway secure from all save an attack. From London to Basra the steamship route is 7,680 miles, all exposed to submarine dangers.

away Baratov's Cossacks were struggling amid the snows of the Pia Tak Pass. By the end of the month the 13th Corps had eluded their vise: Maude had carried Deli Abbas, and Baratov his pass, but this was because the screens were being withdrawn as the main army crossed the Diala. Baratov reached Khanikin and, April 2, an advance sotnia of Cossacks joined hands with the British force at Kizil

Robat. Persia was now cleared of the Turk and there was no enemy east of the Diala. Nevertheless, the 13th Army Corps had been extricated from grave peril. If the Russian force had had half of the vitality it had had eighteen months previously the enemy could not have got away as he did. In purport the advance on Bagdad was a two-fold operation; in reality the heavy end had fallen upon the

British forces. A Turkish counter-attack delivered by the 13th Corps developed about the 7th of April, and fierce fighting which began in a mirage lasted until the 13th, when the Turks were driven back into the Jebel Hamrin range once more.

THE LAST TURKISH POSITIONS ARE TAKEN AT THE END OF THE SUMMER.

The column on the west bank of the Tigris had made good progress, and reinforced by the Diala troops who left the Russians to hold this sector, were ready by the 17th for the final attack on Samarra. After six days of uninterrupted fighting the railhead was captured. Khalil made a last effort. The 18th Corps intrenched 15 miles north of Samarra; and the 13th Corps on its left flank emerged from its hill fastnesses, striking against the two forces of the British on the Tigris which had now joined. It was driven back but again emerged—to meet the same fate. The 18th Corps fell back on Tekrit; in every direction Bagdad was cleared of the enemy for a radius of 50 miles, while the enemy corps was driven back on divergent lines.

General Maude could afford to take a rest in the terrible summer heat—the season was the hottest known for years, the temperature often rising above 120° Fahrenheit. It was unfortunate, in view of the hot season, that a campaign was planned on the Euphrates in July. The Turks were comfortably established at Ramadiya and the Arabs downstream, encouraged by their proximity, made hostile demonstrations against the British at Feluja. The operation failed for the troops could make no headway in a blinding dust-storm and intense heat and the enter-

prise was abandoned. Two months later, in September, a successful attack had as its objectives not only Ramadiya but the capture of the whole enemy force—and attained them.

GENERAL MAUDE FALLS A VICTIM TO HIS COURTESY.

The Turks had designs for the recapture of Bagdad, and two German divisions reached Aleppo early in November. Just then came news of Sir Edmund Allenby's victories in Southern Palestine (November 7, 1917) and General von Falkenhayn, then acting as the Turkish military adviser in Asia, drafted the divisions to that front. On the 19th of the month the Mesopotamian Army lost its great commander, General Maude, who fell a victim to the cholera—his courtesy forbidding him to refuse a draught of cold milk offered by a native.

So perished a great soldier and a great organizer. Bagdad was won by gallantry and endurance, but equally by organized transport, commissariat and medical departments. With a gift for detail and a tireless energy, Maude had also the rarer faculty of vision which could see the whole situation in true perspective. He was succeeded by Lieutenant-General Sir William Marshall, who had already rendered valuable service in the campaign against Bagdad. The Palestine victories had changed the plans of the Turkish Staff, and henceforth the chief task of the British commander-in-chief was to continue to strengthen his position. The danger of a Turco-German offensive was now slight, although unable to withstand the summer heat in the Diala triangle, Baratov's Cossacks had withdrawn to the Persian hills.



Bridge of Vidor over the Piave, Where Italy Halted the Invader

CHAPTER XLVII

The Italian Disaster at Caporetto

THE ITALIANS LOSE WHAT THEY HAD GAINED, BUT RALLY AND HOLD FAST

STERN, silent, immutable, amid the shifting tide of human concerns, the Julian Alps have looked upon strange scenes. Long centuries ago, barbarian hordes of Goth and Hun and great imperial armies battled in their gateways. Yet, in all the flow of years, perhaps no stranger spectacle of man's ingenuity and endeavor can be conceived than that which was staged over and around those wardens of the Isonzo region in 1917, leaving them with new scars which they must carry for the rest of time.

THE ALLIED NATIONS PROMISE TO SEND AID TO ITALY.

In January, during the mid-winter lull in fighting operations, a conference of distinguished military and political representatives from the four leading Allied nations met for three days at Rome. There Italy was promised assistance by the French and British. As a consequence, France sent guns, to be manned by Italian gunners, and England sent batteries of six-inch howitzers, with 2,000 men.

Until May the Italian High Command had to wait until the late spring floods subsided. There were evidences that their opponents were preparing for a new offensive; therefore, General Cadorna laid plans for an attack to anticipate it. The main attack was to fall on the middle Isonzo. A supplemen-

tary movement in the Carso had for its aim to gain new territory on that forbidding plateau in the direction of Hermada.

THE ITALIAN ATTACK IS DELIVERED ON THE ISONZO.

The Italian artillery bombarded the whole Isonzo front, from May 12 until the morning of May 14, in preparation for an infantry attack from Plava and Gorizia upon Kuk, Monte Santo, and the hills along the edge of the Bain-sizza Plateau. After the first day, General Capello, commander of the Second Army, placed the artillery command of the 2nd Corps in the hands of Major-General Badoglio, whose plans for taking Sabotino had been so successful. Under his direction, the Italian guns seemed to be "driving nails along given lines" of the Austrian positions, "and the hammerstrokes were delivered with unfailing skill."

On the night of May 15 a diversion was created about eight miles south of Tolmino, where Bersaglieri and Alpini forced a passage across the Isonzo and improvised a bridgehead on the east bank. They held it under fearful odds until the eighteenth, when, deeply chagrined at having to abandon the attack, they were withdrawn, as the purpose of the action had been accomplished. In the first stage of the offensive, sections of Kuk, Vodice, and Santo

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were taken, as well as several hamlets and hills east of Gorizia and Plava. The Plava bridgehead had by this time been strengthened by the building of the "Badoglio Road," the "road of the thirty-two hairpins," which dropped by successive zigzags down from Monte Corada. As to Kuk, a distinguished English author writes: "A few days after its capture I saw on the top of Monte Kuk some Italian 'seventy-fives' that had been dragged up, Heaven knows how, by sheer strength of arm and will during the mêlée itself."

THE ITALIANS SUFFER VERY HEAVY LOSSES ON THE ISONZO.

"The Italian losses were, of course, very heavy. The attacking troops had carried positions that might well have been thought impregnable, and they had paid the price. When the Avellino and Florence Brigades were taken out of the line to rest and re-form after three and four days' fighting respectively, the Avellino had lost over 100 officers and nearly 2,700 men, out of 140 officers and 5,000 men; and though the casualties in the Florence Brigade were not quite so heavy, they lost nearly 50 per cent of their strength." The Austrians attempted a diversion on the Trentino at this juncture, opening heavy fire in the Val Sugana, on the Asiago Plateau, and in the Adige Valley. There was vigorous fighting on Monte Colbricon and the "Dente del Pasubio."

Necessity for economizing in military supplies forbade General Cadorna's attempting to attack simultaneously on two sectors of any great width. Consequently, the stroke upon the Carso was not delivered until May 23. It fell with such overwhelming force that in a few hours the Austro-Hungarians had been driven back nearly a mile beyond their immensely strong front lines from Kostanjevica to the sea, and had yielded Hudi Log ("the Evil Wood"), Lukatic, Jamiano, and several hills. At the southern end, on the coast, Bagni was taken in a battle that engaged 130 airplanes and a group of the Royal Navy seaplanes. The first day's contest gave the Italians 9,000 prisoners. By May 28, the line had

moved still farther east, across the Timavo River to San Giovanni, at the southern end; and proportionately all the way. Hermada was nearly taken. Unhappily, the Italian supply of shells was falling so low that the advance had to stop at the very moment when it seemed most likely to break through the opposing line.

THE AUSTRIANS STRIKE BACK IN THE CARSO.

The inevitable counter-attack, occupying the first week in June, was most violent from San Marco southward. From Fajti Hrib to Jamiano, the bombardment and infantry drives did not make much impression; but farther south the Italians fell back from one-third of a mile to a mile and a quarter on a three mile front, recrossing the Timavo and dropping behind Flondar. The fighting was fierce and terrible. Yet there was one strange stain on the great record of valorous endeavor. A brigade, engaged on the slopes of Hermada, surrendered without any attempt at real resistance and so made way for the enemy. It was composed of men newly drafted from a region where pacifist propaganda was astir. A danger from within, more baleful than any host of tangible warriors however armed, had begun to raise its head. General Cadorna at once wrote to the Government with warning and appeal.

In the whole spring offensive the Italians lost nearly 130,000 men, of whom about 6,000 were prisoners. They had taken, in return, 24,260 Austro-Hungarian prisoners, and had reduced the enemy fighting forces by something less than 100,000 in killed and wounded. In mid-summer, the glacier-fed flood of the river was rushing through gorges between lofty cliffs, or rolling beside occasional narrow plains. Far to the north, it passed towering Monte Nero, overlooking Caporetto on the west, with its peaceful Italian garrison, and Tolmino on the southeast, with its unmolested Austrian inhabitants.

HERMADA SHAKEN, BUT NOT CAPTURED BY THE ATTACK.

Less than twenty miles farther down the stream, close behind the Italian

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position at Gorizia, rose the sheer precipice of Monte Santo, on whose summit, lifted "like a church spire," lay the ruins of a shrine. There, at the outbreak of hostilities, the aged emperor of Austria-Hungary had been carried in a sedan chair, to pray for the success of his Imperial arms. Now, Franz Josef had passed beyond the bounds of human history, and the shrine had crumbled into a heap of white marble under shell-fire from Sabotino, only a half-mile away across the river. Still farther southward, where Isonzo meets the sea, across the blue gulf one could gaze along the Carso to "ugly turtle-backed Hermada Mountain blocking the road to Trieste." But the boast of Hermada was partly silenced. Not all its guns could speak as they had done.

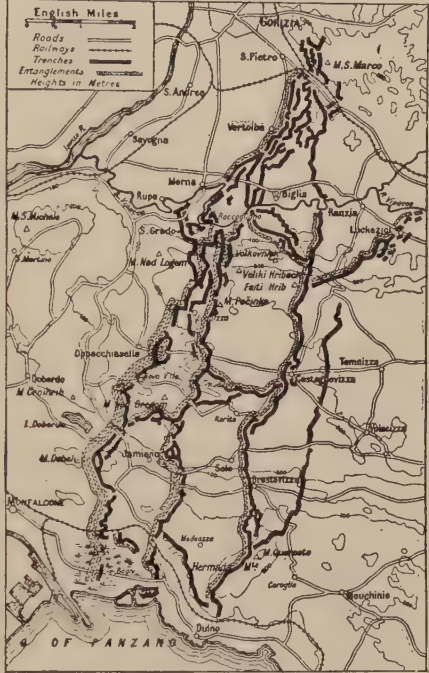
After the unavoidable check in the vigorous Italian offensive of May, 1917, General Cadorna was unable to press for further progress until summer had begun to wane. His allies could not spare him sufficient aid for a great offensive movement, while his adversaries were enabled to build up their resistance by transferring troops from the demoralized Russian front, no longer formidable since the collapse of the Russian government in the spring.

THE BATTLE RESUMED ON THE ISONZO
IN AUGUST.

After mid-summer had passed in comparative quiet, a month of continuous and intense conflict was inaugurated on August 18 by a great bombardment from Tolmino to the sea. North of Gorizia, where the Isonzo makes a bend that points westward, lies Plava, which had been steadily useful to the Italians since its capture in June, 1915. Again it was to be employed as a starting place for an important attack,—this time, upon the Bainsizza Plateau. Fitting into the angle of the river and stretching eastward as far as the Chiapovano Valley, the Bainsizza is an elevated region with surface broken by rock masses, glens, and *doline*, or depressions, somewhat in the same way as that of the Carso.

The Second Army, under General Capello, was operating from Gorizia

northward, with General Badoglio in command of the left wing near Santa Lucia and Tolmino. In that position there was such concentration of Austrian artillery that General Badoglio's forces were compelled to leave the enemy in possession of the Lom Plateau, 'a stronghold whose strategic value was startlingly revealed a few weeks later.



AUSTRIAN DEFENSES ON THE CARSO

BRIDGES CONSTRUCTED AT NIGHT UNDER
GREAT DIFFICULTIES.

But from Plava, on August 18, a sally was made to the northeast, resulting in the seizure of a valley situated between Kuk and the Bain sizza. A short distance farther up the river, where as yet the Italians had found no foothold upon the eastern bank, a crossing was accomplished on the night of August 19. In preparation for this feat, the river had been nightly diverted from its channel until ten foot-bridges had been constructed. By day the stream flowed as usual, showing no sign of change. On the evening of the nineteenth, four pontoon bridges were added, though the cliffs were so abrupt that the boats had to be dropped

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on skids, and ladders had to be used to get the men to the level of the river and up again on the opposite side. To screen the movements on the river, a great battery of search-lights, ranged along the heights of the western shore, was turned upon the Austrian gunners, and heavy firing covered the sound of work upon the bridges.

By their impetuous and unexpected rush up the declivity, in the face of machine guns, the heroic fighters of Capello's army drove their way through the front lines of the enemy, then pushed on north and east across the plateau until, by August 24, they could look across to the edge of Lom in the one direction, and were within range of the Ternova batteries in the other. On the Bainsizza they soon were beyond all points where artillery or trucks and ambulances could accompany them. The engineers followed as fast as was possible, in an effort to keep communications open; but the Austrians had not made good roadways leading to their own front lines and the poor approaches were now ploughed up or encumbered with wreckage. Therefore, there were several days during which the advance of the Italian army could be supplied only by carriers on foot, and the wounded had to be borne back for miles over the rough ground by their companions. Water also was lacking. It was a time of great danger, but the venturesome battalions held their own until the paths had been leveled sufficiently for guns, lorries, and ambulances to carry them relief. Always the reliable Fiat cars, with their intrepid drivers, and the British Red Cross units arrived as near the front as might be and at the earliest moment possible. Further relief was furnished by a diversion in the form of attacks in the middle Isonzo region, around San Gabriele.

MONTE SANTO SURROUNDED AND FORCED TO SURRENDER.

In that sector, northeast of Gorizia, on August 23, Monte Santo had been threatened from the rear, and its garrison isolated by the capture of Sella di Dol, "the saddle" connecting Santo with San Gabriele. Thus cut

off and surrounded, Monte Santo yielded, on the twenty-fourth. Above its summit, more than 2,000 feet high, the Italian tricolor floated out, while regimental bands celebrated there the victorious hour, playing under the direction of the great Toscanini.

During this first week of the offensive, the Duke of Aosta and the Third Army had been doing admirable work on the southern Carso, where the 23rd Corps, under Diaz, demolished the Austrian 12th Division and secured Selo. Very quickly the ground that had been lost in June was recovered, and the Austrian line forced back from Kostanjevica (Castagnevizza) across the Brestovica Valley. Nearer the sea, an advance was made beyond San Giovanni and Medeazza, and attacks on Hermada reopened.

In that sector, British and Italian monitors took part in the bombardment. The Italian monitors, it is said, were of a sort never before used in war, and employed shells of greater calibre than had ever before been fired from warships. Around the head of the Adriatic and on the Bainsizza as well Caproni airplanes, too, furnished admirable assistance in the offensive, flying forward by swarms, in advance of the infantry, and dropping tons of bombs upon the enemy positions.

THE SAN GABRIELE RIDGE THE NEXT OBJECT OF ATTACK.

The first week of September, 1917, marked the beginning of "a fight for a natural fortress within as narrow limits of movement as any old battle for town or castle." It was a struggle for the possession of San Gabriele ridge, which, by the fall of Santo, had become an Austrian salient surrounded by Italians everywhere except on the northeast. For ten days the contest seethed. A correspondent writes:

"When first I looked down (from Santo) upon the battle for San Gabriele I seemed to hang directly over the crater of a volcano. A matter of 40,000 Italian shells on a daily average are bursting over San Gabriele's crest. In addition are the Austrian shells, for the lines on San Gabriele are now so close that the topmost positions

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have been taken and retaken half a dozen times."

THE AUSTRIANS DECIDE TO CONCENTRATE THEIR FORCES.

By September 7, the losses were so appalling that the Austrians called a War Council, where they decided to hold the eastern ridges of the Bainsizza and concentrate attacks against the army of the Duke of Aosta. Over 30,000 Austro-Hungarian prisoners, of whom 848 were officers, had been taken in the engagements of August and

peril, since it had reached a depth of $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles on an eleven-mile front. In reviewing the situation, on September 15, 1917, one correspondent wrote, "The Isonzo, *excepting one little portion opposite Tolmino* at the northern extremity of the offensive line, is now well within Italian possession." Scarcely more than a month passed before that "one little portion" began to loom into a significance that made the world catch its breath in astonishment and suspense.



SAND-BAG TRENCHES ON THE CARSO TABLELAND

That forbidding plateau, the Carso, "yields as little shade or water as the Sahara." Its stunted vegetation reminded the South Africans of their veldt. In places, great natural hollows in the rock furnished ready-made shelters for men and guns; but in other parts, where digging was an impossibility, sand-bag trenches were used.

September; 145 cannons, 265 mitrailleuses, and great quantities of other guns and *matériel* had fallen into the hands of the victors. But on the opposite side of the account were written 155,000 Italian casualties.

Under the Austrian counter-strokes, the Italians fell back from Hermada and San Giovanni, though they relinquished no ground in the vicinity of Kostanjevica. San Gabriele was still divided. Not yet was the road from Gorizia to Trieste opened, when in mid-September the offensive died away. General Capello's Bainsizza position had been reinforced, but it was a salient of peculiar difficulty and

WAR IS FINALLY DECLARED UPON THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

Not until August, 1916, was the last link of the Triple Alliance formally severed. Up to that time, Italy had declared war against Austria-Hungary, against Turkey, even against Bulgaria, but not against Germany. The situation was anomalous and compromising, for there was no question that Germany stood behind Austria-Hungary with support and direction in her warfare upon Italy. Moreover, the Prussian power was continually committing unfriendly acts, in violation of all agreements with its Latin ally. The atmosphere was cleared by

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the Italian Government's denunciation of the Commercial treaty with Germany, which had been made on May 21, 1915, and finally, on August 27, Victor Emmanuel made proclamation that Italy declared war upon Germany. No change of plans was involved. The only difference in the situation was that, in name, as well as in fact, Italy and Germany were thenceforth at war.

the face behind it." Yet, the war had gone on without bringing forward any German army upon the Italian frontier.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE ITALIAN PEASANT SOLDIER.

At the eastern end of that frontier, after the terrific strife of August and September, 1917, "both sides settled down exhausted on the ground where they found themselves." The Italian



ITALIAN DOCTOR INOCULATING BERSAGLIERI AGAINST DISEASE

Italian soldiers are for the most part sound and tough in physique, especially the mountain troops. And the Bersaglieri are particularly uncomplaining when wounded and in pain. In modern warfare no precautions are spared to prevent epidemics; so inoculation, quarantine, careful supervision over food, drinking water, hygienic conditions of barracks, etc., are part of the duty of the Sanitary Department. Picture from Henry Ruschin

Three months later, when, on November 21, Franz Josef came to the end of his long career, the hostile feelings of the Italians for their German antagonists grew more intense. The old emperor, nicknamed "Cecco Beppe" by his southern neighbors, had long held the rôle of their traditional oppressor and evil genius. At his death the heritage of hatred passed, not to his young successor, Karl, but to the German Empire. Caricatures of "Cecco Beppe" were then given Prussian lineaments and crowned with Prussian helmets. The natural animosity of the race had been transferred "from the mask to

Third Army, under the Duke of Aosta, rested along the line they had established on the Carso, facing the extreme left wing of the enemy from Gorizia to the sea. Flanking them, from Gorizia and San Gabriele northward over the Bainsizza to beyond Tolmino and Caporetto, stood the Second Army, commanded by General Capello, whose area of control had been considerably extended since 1916.

Many in these two armies had sustained the heavy strain of war for months, had borne the "heat and burden" of long days of furious fighting, the cold and depression of weeks of

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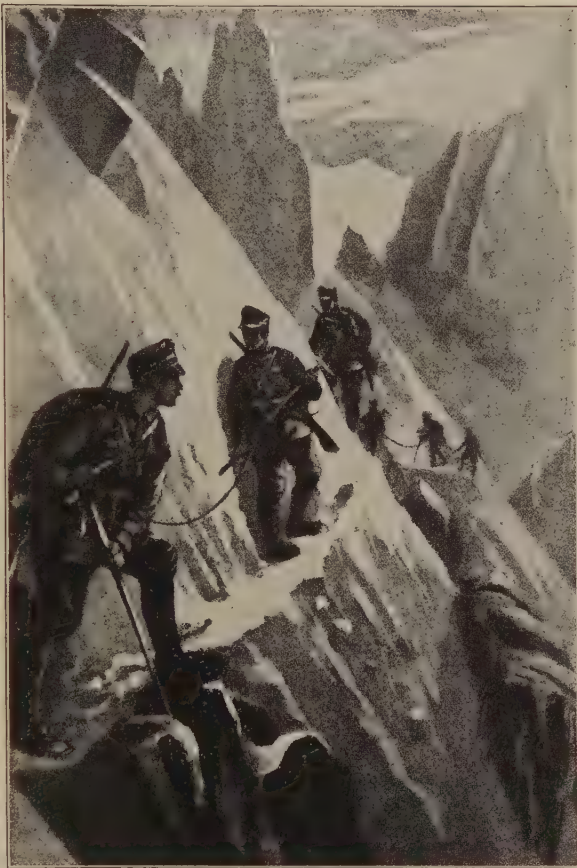
winter vigil. With the patience characteristic of their peasant natures they had toiled and climbed and endured, although they little comprehended the purpose and meaning of the conflict in which they were involved. They came, for the most part, from country villages where life was simple and where they had almost no touch with great affairs of state and of the world at large. Education had never opened for them the paths of understanding and large enterprise. Some could indeed read and write; some could not. The explanations of the war and of political questions to which they listened were conflicting and confusing. Which should they believe? After all, government and politics belonged to the towns. It was in the towns that the decision for war had been made. They themselves had had no part in that decision.

AGITATORS APPEAR AND SOW SEEDITION IN THE RANKS.

The patriotism of these sons of Italy was natural and spontaneous rather than a thing of reason and conviction. Tradition taught them to hate the Austrians. Against such foes they would follow their gallant officers with spirit and devotion, because in some vague way they knew that their country needed them. They saw their brothers and companions suffer or die. It was somehow a necessary sacrifice.

With no apparent need for guarding against treason among such troops, no precautions were taken and danger crept in unnoticed. Propaganda which, in the months of neutrality, had been actively at work to prevent Italy's entering the war, was still abroad up and down the land sowing seeds of unrest. Socialist and pacifist agitators talked in terms of brotherhood and amity, making use of the Vatican Peace Note to support their arguments for ending the war. When the Russian

millions, lost in anarchy, had scattered from their place in the Allied ranks, some members of the Soviet had pushed in among the Italian armies to spread unsettling doctrines there. The Italian soldier heard that the



AN AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN PATROL

The jagged peaks and crags of the Dolomites called for great mountain prowess. Alpine clubs had been encouraged by the German, Austrian and Italian governments, as the skill acquired and the routes discovered were assets in war.

Russians had been wise in abandoning their arms and going home to seize land that they might live upon it in peace.

THE ITALIAN AUTHORITIES REFUSE TO SEE THE DANGER.

Although General Cadorna had sought to arouse the government to take some action toward checking the insidious growth of such pernicious influences, nothing had been done. Signor Orlando, Minister of the Interior, did not favor adopting stern methods of repression; and Signor Boselli, the Premier, a

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veteran statesman, had undertaken to shoulder the burden of Government in wartime at the age of eighty. Warnings of trouble passed unheeded, though they flamed out in such startling manifestations as the bread riots in Turin in the month of August, where the enemy's hand was plainly at work. Turin, one of the most important centres in the country for the production of munitions, had been strangely open to the propaganda of anarchy. Even the troops who were set to restore order became infected with the spirit of mutiny. Turin was threatened with martial law before there was an end to the disturbance.

Thus the enemy operated within the gates. At the same time he was laying plans to creep up outside the gates and force them in with a crushing blow. By the breaking down of the Russian front there had been released Austrian and German forces, ready to be used on the southern frontier. Thereupon a composite army, the Fourteenth, was formed, including six German and seven Austrian divisions. Under Ludendorff's direction they were drilled and equipped for fighting in the open in hill country. Half of the field artillery was displaced by mountain guns, and among the German divisions was a Bavarian Alpenkorps. Ostensibly, the Austro-Hungarian Staff continued in control as before; but the actual authority and direction had passed over to the German General Staff. "It was a thoroughly German outfit and had been prepared in the usual thorough German fashion."

THE GERMAN HIGH COMMAND SELECTS THE WEAKEST SPOT.

The Italian Command failed to perceive these ominous preparations. Ludendorff, on the other hand, seems carefully to have studied their own arrangements and to have placed his finger upon the weakest spot, between Plezzo and Tolmino, where the same Austrian and Italian divisions had for months been pacific neighbors and had begun to fraternize, encouraged in their friendly tendencies by Socialist agents. The position was considered so safe that it received little attention

from General Capello, even after the mutinous contingents from Turin had unfortunately been sent there by way of punishment. By these combinations of circumstance it came about that a "whole sequence of great events" has been called "by the name of a little Alpine market-town"; for Caporetto was the centre of the vulnerable spot opposite which Ludendorff slipped in his Fourteenth Army, under the command of Otto von Below. Around Gorizia and on the Carso, the Austrian armies remained, with Prince Eugene at their head.

Upon that quiet, little-noticed corner far north on the Isonzo, with the sharpness and suddenness of complete surprise, German strategy flung its attack. The Monte Nero salient there made an abrupt eastward-reaching loop in the Italian line, which crossed the river a little southwest of Plezzo and again just northwest of Tolmino. A similar loop in the river, at Tolmino, enclosed Santa Lucia, which furnished the Austrians with an excellent bridgehead, protected on the south by Lom. It will be recalled that Lom, on the northern border of the Bainsizza, had resisted all attacks in August, and that consequently the enemy position at Santa Lucia west of the river had remained unshaken. Hence a way to the Italian position lay open through the Isonzo Valley itself from Tolmino and from Plezzo. Halfway between, on the left bank of the river, little Caporetto was situated, in the shadow of Monte Nero but too far below to find protection from the Italian positions on its heights.

THE GERMAN TROOPS BREAK THROUGH WITH A RUSH.

Bombardments, by the enemy, opening on October 21, soon narrowed to the stretch between Saga and Auzza. In courtyards and on roadways where all had been secure and peaceful hitherto, shells burst and confusion awoke. Under cover of the artillery, on October 24, the German divisions broke through, seeking by three routes to reach the plains below:—from Tolmino and Santa Lucia through the valley of the Judrio; from Plezzo over into Saga and thence down the Isonzo to the

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Natisone; lastly, around Nero and across the Isonzo to Caporetto, whence a good road and newly finished railway followed the valley of the Natisone to Cividale.

The attacks at both ends of the salient were met with sturdy resistance. But the centre drove through at Caporetto, where were stationed the newly-drafted, untried elements of

THE GAP AT CAPORETTO FORCES RETIREMENT OF OTHER FORCES.

When the first day ended, the Italian position from Saga to Auzza had been carried. The Monte Nero garrison, thus isolated, with characteristic determination fought on for days, until none were left. Not all the Second Army failed, in that awful test. There were those who would die rather than



THE RETREAT FROM THE ISONZO FRONT TO THE TAGLIAMENTO RIVER

From the northeastern section opposite Tolmino the disorganized Second Army fell back in confusion, crossing the Tagliamento at Codroipo on October 30. On the thirty-first, the Third Army began to cross at Latisana, having made a masterly retreat from the Carso region. Meanwhile, the Fourth Army was moving southwest from the Carnic front, to join hands with the Third Army. About forty miles lie between the Isonzo and the Tagliamento.

Capello's Army and the disaffected spirits from Turin. If, as has been narrated, deluded Italian soldiers sprang forward to grasp the hands of their expected Austro-Hungarian brothers, they had little time to wonder before they fell under the blows of Prussian steel. Panic, surrender, flight, were the natural sequence. General Capello was ill with fever at the time, and General Montuori was acting as his substitute. The weather, with storm and mist, and, on the mountains, snow, made for the advantage of the invaders. The very atmosphere of disaster seemed to envelop the whole sector.

step back from their hard-won battle-front. And yet, there were those for whom war-weariness and ignorance and discouragement proved too severe a strain, so that they inevitably became infected with the spirit of helplessness and desertion. Unhappily there were two corps in the Caporetto section which "melted away" before the first blast. Neglect, thoughtless complaints of the uninstructed, and hostile propaganda had worked together to shake the morale of these men.

The falling in of the salient on the north left the troops on the Bainsizza exposed. If the enemy moved on down

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the valleys in their rear, they would be cut off from communication and supply. There was but one thing they could do to avoid being outflanked. On the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth they withdrew from the whole plateau, relinquishing, as well, Kuk and Santo and San Gabriele. During that time, too, the headquarters of General Cadorna, which had been at Udine, were removed to Padua, since Udine could be reached directly by rail from Cividale, only ten miles away and already seriously threatened.

A DISORGANIZED THROG POURS INTO THE PLAINS.

On the highroads that led to the plains a mixed, disorganized, and wretched throng trailed slowly onward, hour by hour, through mud and rain. Exhausted, famished, dispirited, they moved toward the southwest, with the enemy, almost at their heels, kept back only by the heroic rear-guard efforts of regiments that held together and strove to retard the on-sweeping German lines. There were among the multitude soldiers whose Socialist tutors had instructed them to lay down their arms, since the war was over. They were simply "going home." There were civilian refugees from the districts through which the sad train was passing, and so the company was constantly augmented. Carts, horses, motor-vehicles, ambulances, lorries, without official control or guidance, traveled by tedious degrees, side by side with the crowds on foot, ever in one direction and "the slowest set the pace." Now and then an aeroplane swooped near, with terrifying menace, but the storms provided some protection from air attack, and the Italian aviators were valiant in combating enemy airmen, so preventing much possible horror and devastation.

The German divisions under von Below began to pour out upon the plains, at the mouth of Natisone Valley, on October 28. They entered Cividale that day, and left it in ruins. Then they pushed upon Udine, where the Arditi disputed, their entrance and withstood them until the twenty-ninth. The Austrian forces, who had recovered

the Bainsizza, took possession of Gorizia on the twenty-eighth, when it was reluctantly evacuated by the last of its defenders.

THE THIRD ARMY SAVES THE DAY BY ITS ORDERLY RETREAT.

As the position of the Third Army, with the Duke of Aosta, on the Carso, had become untenable before the loss of Gorizia, it had withdrawn across the Vallone and started on the brilliant and orderly retreat toward the Tagliamento. This river, some forty miles west of the Isonzo, was the goal toward which the whole retiring mass looked with hope. A host of fugitives, including what was left of the Second Army, crossed at Codroipo on October 30. On the west side of the Tagliamento they found "a more hopeful and active world, where officers and Carabinieri were sorting out the men as they arrived over the bridge, and orders were being given and obeyed."

The next day, at Latisana near the coast, the greater part of the Third Army crossed to the west side of the river, with 500 of their guns, and began to take positions there. "The Duke of Aosta's retreat was one of those performances in war which succeed against crazy odds, and which, consequently, we call inexplicable. It made the Italian stand possible, and deprived the enemy of the crowning triumph which he almost held in his hands."

The British guns had all been saved and carried from the Carso. "Heaven knows how it was done," observes one who took part in the retreat and who states that, owing to the efficient services of the British Red Cross Unit attending the Third Army, "no British sick or wounded fell into the hands of the enemy." The Austro-German Command was claiming the capture of 200,000 prisoners and 1,800 guns. Several thousand of the prisoners were non-combatant workmen who had been caught in the first rush.

A TEMPORARY HALT BEHIND THE TAGLIAMENTO RIVER.

The flooded Tagliamento furnished the Italians a temporary barrier, which gave opportunity for the restoration of order and the preparation of new plans.

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The fighting, up to this point, had been done in detached sections with, "literally, hundreds of isolated encircling movements" by the enemy, resulting in the seizure of prisoners in large numbers. But the invading armies found greater difficulty in moving up their guns as they advanced farther over the plains and swollen streams, while the space between the Italian Third Army and the Fourth Army under De Robilant on the Carnic front was becoming narrower and narrower. The two would soon be "able to link hands across the gap" created by the disappearance of the Second Army.

With no prospect of holding firmly at the Tagliamento, nor at the Livenza River, next beyond, the banks of the Piave offered the first promising ground on which to make a stand. "There the right bank was protected by the most modern and approved practice trenches, constructed by 'rookies' before they had been allowed to go to the battle line." On November 3, the Germans and Hungarians crossed the Tagliamento at Tolmezzo, Pinzano, and other points. By the eighth they had pushed across the Livenza. At last, on November 10, the Italians stood along the Piave, ready to defy further Teutonic aggression and to protect Venice from disaster. In crossing the rivers, armored motor cars, with quick-firing guns in their turrets, held the bridges until all others had passed across. Then, following the cavalry rear-guards, they burned the bridges behind them.

THE LINE OF THE PIAVE RIVER IS TAKEN.

It was with utter reluctance and regret that the Fourth Army had retired from the Carnic Alps, and the First Army, under Pecori-Giraldo, from the peaks and passes in the Cadore region. They now took their places side by side with the reorganized Second

Army and the Third in the line that sheltered Venice and her neighbor cities on the plains. On the Adriatic side Venetia had been laid open by the withdrawal of the naval batteries along the Northern Adriatic coast, consequent upon the loss of the Carso and the region between the Isonzo and the



GENERAL ARMANDO DIAZ

General Diaz, General Cadorna's successor in command of the Italian armies, was born and educated at Naples. He had fought in Africa. After brilliant success on the Carso, he was given command of the 23rd Army Corps on the Isonzo, where he added to his reputation.

Piave. The Allied Navy was the whole length of the peninsula away, at Taranto.

With the realization that the offensive was a serious danger, requiring instant and vigorous action, on October 26 the existing Ministry had been overthrown as inadequate. The first of November found the government reconstructed, with Signor Orlando as Premier, Baron Sonnino at the head of the Foreign Office, Signor Nitti in charge of the Treasury, and Signor Alfieri as Minister of War. All parties,

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except the extreme Socialists, laid aside party issues and devoted themselves earnestly to the task of saving the country from calamity.

ALLIED REINFORCEMENTS AND A NEW ITALIAN COMMANDER.

The first step toward a united command for the Western Allies was taken when a council was held at Rapallo, near Genoa, on November 5, to consider how best to deal with the perilous situation in Italy. From England came Lloyd George, General Smuts, Sir William Robertson, and Sir Henry Wilson; from France, M. Painlevé and General Foch. Italy was represented by Signor Orlando, Baron Sonnino, and Signor Alfieri. Out of this council grew a triune General Staff, of which General Cadorna was made a member, together with General Foch and General Sir Henry Wilson. Headquarters were at Versailles. General Foch, at the time, held the post of Chief of Staff of the French War Office, and Sir Henry Wilson belonged to the British General Staff. As Commander-in-Chief of the Italian armies, General Cadorna was superseded by General Diaz, who had as his Chief of the General Staff, General Badoglio, and as Sub-Chief of the Staff, General Giordino.

Reinforcements of French and British troops had already been hastened into the country, the French 12th Corps, under General Fayolle, first, followed, early in November, by a British corps, the 14th, under Sir Herbert Plumer. "One of England's best loans to Italy was General Plumer." He gave his influence strongly to the holding of the Piave if it could possibly be done, although at the moment the risk involved seemed so great that the French and British divisions were stationed near the Adige and on the hills around Vicenza, to form a reserve there in case the Italians should be forced back. Therefore, the Italians, alone, except for the British batteries rescued from the Carso, formed a line of defense before the Piave. The presence of the Allies, however, supplied a moral buttress for the spirits of the heavily-strained nation. Britons and

Frenchmen met with a sincere and enthusiastic welcome.

THE ITALIAN PEOPLE REALIZE THEIR DESPERATE SITUATION.

General Cadorna's *communiqué* of October 28 had revealed the very truth about the situation where the line gave way. In his rage, at that shocking instant, he had used the plainest terms, not hesitating at "treason" itself. Although the message was not made public until its language had been modified, rumor got abroad and was caught up without delay. The effect was that of an electric current shaking men and women into consciousness of their stupid or wilful failure to perceive the dangers they had been fostering instead of fighting.

"Now, in the souls of four-and-thirty millions from the Alps to Sicily, a decisive battle was waged in the secular conflict between the persistent materialism and the no less persistent idealism of the Italian nature. The very existence of the idealist principle in the common life of the race was threatened, and to some seemed already doomed. Italy, having striven for a hundred years to be a great and free country with traditions and memories of her own making, had not, it seemed, the necessary staying power. Was she, after all, fit only to be a 'museum, an inn, a summer resort' for German 'honeymoon couples,' 'a delightful market for buying and selling, fraud and barter,' as in the days before Mazzini? Had the fathers of the *Risorgimento* been mere sentimentalists, who tried to make the land of their dreams out of earthen clay? Had the true decision been, not in 1860, but in 1849, if only they had had the sense to accept it? Or had they perchance been right after all, those great ones of old, with that large faith of theirs? The world would soon know."

On the heels of the *communiqué* followed the Propaganda of the Mutilated, launched on the same day, October 28. Both officers and privates whose injuries had removed them from active service gave themselves to the work of reviving a burning spirit of patriotism in the country. Blinded, lamed, or

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paralyzed, they yet had tongues to persuade their fellow-citizens to meet the country's need.

THE SITUATION OF THE OPPOSING ARMIES IN NOVEMBER.

On November 9, the day before the Italian armies reached their standing-ground behind the Piave, the ruined remnant of Asiago passed again into the hands of the Austrians. Two days later, the enemy line was a united whole, when the eastern and western ends were knitted together between the Upper Piave and the Val Sugana. In that sector, the Fourteenth Austro-German Army and the Tenth Austrian Army faced the Italian Fourth Army under de Robilant, which had moved southwest from the Carnic front. West of the Brenta, on the Asiago Plateau, Pecori-Giraldo, with the Italian First Army, was prepared to hold those heights and the Val Frenzela, against the Austrian Eleventh Army. In the "bottle-neck" between the Brenta and the Piave, the Italians occupied the ridges, of which the Monte Grappa and Monte Tomba massifs lay nearest the south. About ten miles southeast, beyond the Piave's bend eastward, on its right bank, Montello provided another ridge to fortify for defense at a distance of twenty-five miles from Venice. The Asiago Plateau, Monte Grappa, and Montello were the northern centres of the struggle that darkened the remaining days of November and the whole month of December, while the flood of the Lower Piave was being disputed hotly by the Italian right wing under the gallant Duke of Aosta. At the other end of the shortened Italian line, the Fifth Army with General Morrone did not change its position west of the Trentino; but its right flank was endangered by the enemy's presence in the Val Sugana.

THE AUSTRO-GERMAN FORCES MAKE SLIGHT GAINS.

Working down the Brenta Valley from the Val Sugana and pressing eastward from Asiago, the Austrian mountain troops and some Hungarian divisions, under von Below, drove the defenders of the uplands back toward the last ridges at Monte Tomba and

Monte Grappa, and approached the upper end of the Val Frenzela. Meanwhile, the Italians eagerly watched the mountains for the first sign of the expected snows. The storms came late. "It was not the snow that saved Italy, but the valor of her sons."

On the Piave, Boroëvic's forces crossed to the west side at Zenson, only eighteen miles from the sea, on November 13, and took a bridgehead farther up the stream. When, at the mouth of the river, Hungarian battalions crossed the canalized stream and started over the marshes to the old river-bed, Piave Vecchia, or Sile, the engineers opened the flood-gates which had been built to reclaim land in the delta and to control the rise of waters in the lagoons of Venice less than twenty miles away. Of the conditions after the floods were let loose on November 15, we have this account by a correspondent:

FLOODS DEFEND THE ITALIANS ON THE LOWER PIAVE.

"The water effectively holds the enemy at most exposed points and for fifteen miles on the west bank of the Piave. The flooded area is about seventy square miles, and the water is a foot to five feet deep and twelve miles in width at some points, making the district impossible of occupation or movement by enemy troops. The enemy clings to the west bank at Zenson, but is crowded into a small U-shaped position and relying on batteries across the river to keep the Italians back.

"The lower floors of the houses in such villages as Piave Vecchia are under water, and the campanili stick up from the mud-hued level of the flood like strange immense water plants; and here in the silence of the floods the enemy is moving in boats and squelshing over mud islands. Peasants, awaiting rescue from the inundation, see him arrive with feelings much like those of shipwrecked people who hail a passing sail and find it is a pirate craft."

THE AUSTRIANS ATTACK ON THE ASIAGO PLATEAU.

As December opened, there were indications on the Asiago Plateau that

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a vigorous Austro-German offensive was in preparation. On a front of twelve miles no fewer than 2,000 guns were massed. General Plumer offered, in conjunction with the French, to take over some sectors in the foot-hills; but the Italian High Command feared the effect of the cold and snow upon troops unaccustomed to mountain conditions and not equipped for them. Therefore,

danger of a break into the plains undoubtedly increased."

The anticipated attack on the Asiago began toward the end of the first week in December. Slowly the Italians yielded position after position, holding out so long that they sometimes lost many prisoners at a time. The number captured by the enemy soon mounted to 15,000. But he, too, was losing his



BRITISH TROOPS ON THE MARCH ACROSS THE PLAINS OF ITALY

The wise, sound strategic advice of General Plumer and the sense of support furnished by the presence of British and French troops helped to sustain the spirits of the Italians in their desperate stand at the Piave. The British, in their march across the historic northern plains, were greeted with enthusiastic demonstrations. They took up their position on the Montello height, between Montebelluna and the Piave, the first week in December.

the assisting forces were assigned to the Montello sector, which formed "a hinge to the whole Italian line." The aid was much appreciated as a means of relief for General de Robilant's army in its too-difficult position. To keep the sector supplied, boys no more than eighteen years old had been poured into the ranks after barely a month of drill in camp. Such was the sacrifice the country was offering up.

Yet, "December was an anxious month," Sir Herbert Plumer says. "Local attacks grew more frequent and more severe, and though the progress made was not great, yet the

thousands. Already, since the beginning of the invasion, he had given up 150,000 in killed, wounded and captured.

ALPINI AND BERSAGLIERI FIGHT TO THE LAST MAN.

Both east and west of Brenta, heights were taken and retaken. "It was a saturnalia of killing. To realize what was then happening, you need a vision of death striding those misty valleys like a proprietor walking in his own fields. The hill of the Bersaglieri was held by front men who had fought since the offensive in August on the Bainsizza Plateau. They fought till

fighting availed no longer, and then fell back, fighting still and attacking at every opportunity with the bayonet." These are the words of Perceval Gibbon.

As so many times before, Alpini and Bersaglieri performed unheard-of feats of sheer daring, exhibiting that dash and spirit which are suggested by the very mention of their names. However, by Christmas Day, the prospect was still unlightened. The enemy had advanced into the Val Frenzela and had secured the lower summit of Monte Tomba, threatening to outflank Monte Grappa.

THE TIDE TURNS WITH THE END OF THE YEAR.

Then, on December 30, the French left, supported by British batteries, cleared the summit and slopes of Monte Tomba, taking 1,500 Austrian prisoners. With this success, the tide seemed to turn. The hills were aiding their defenders, at last, for wild storms had broken out. The Piave was rushing, swollen to a width of 1,000 yards or more in places, its waters icy and forbidding. In spite of the peril of wading or crossing on rafts, volunteers never were lacking for the raids that were made, from time to time upon the east bank. Before the first fortnight of the new year was gone, Zenson bridgehead had been retaken by the Duke of Aosta, and the Austrians driven back across the river.

Step by step, hour by hour, the Teuton forces lost ground and the Italian positions became less cramped. The counter-offensive was marked by some signal successes, as when on January 27, Col del Rosso and Col d'Echele were both taken and held and more than 1,500 prisoners captured; while, the next day, an attack on Monte di Val Bella resulted in carrying the summit and added over a thousand more Austrian prisoners.

Since the hope of getting down on to the Venetian plains had been frustrated, Ludendorff began to withdraw German troops for use on other battle-fronts where they were needed. In the Austrian command a change was made, when, about January 21, 1918, General

Boroevic succeeded the Archduke Eugene as head of the entire front against Italy—an appointment which was considered "merely a sop thrown to the Slav element of Austria-Hungary."

THE NAVY HELPS IN THE DEFENSE OF VENICE.

On the side of the Allies there was increasing harmony and understanding. When British and French batteries were working in conjunction with those of Italy, an Italian Staff officer declared: "At last we have realized unity of command right in the face of enemy fire." But the Italians themselves bore the chief burden of the fighting. "The Italian Army could not only resist—that had been shown by the wonderful stand after the long retreat—but could already hit back hard and retake from the enemy very strong positions which had been in his hands for over a month. The recovery from the long trial was very quick; and it was of special significance that the brigade which took Col del Rosso and held it against all the furious counter-attacks of the Austrians was the Sassari Brigade, which had belonged to the Second Army and come through the worst of the great retreat."

In following the efforts of the Alpini, Bersaglieri, Infantry, Cavalry, and Arditi, we must not lose sight of the equally necessary and heroic part played by the Navy in the defense of Venice. The spirit of its men was manifested as soon as news of the Austro-German invasion reached them in the naval bases. Almost with one accord they asked to be transferred to the infantry and allowed to go to the front. As many as could be spared had their requests granted; but there was plenty of work to be done on the water. All through the retreat, the right flank of the army was protected by marines along canals and rivers. "Platoons of marines stood in the mud behind guns corroded by the inundations, holding back entire companies of enemy troops for days and nights without the possibility of obtaining relief or food. Some of the gun crews dragged not only the mounts and the guns by hand across very swampy ground, with



VENICE, WHERE ROMANCE AND BEAUTY ABIDE

Venice, whose islands offered a refuge from Attila and his Huns in 452 A.D., is a land of blue waters, radiant skies, flashing colors and lilting songs. She has picturesque, romantic charm, and encloses a store of artistic treasure. With her industries hard hit by the war, she made a patriotic and heroic readjustment. Then came the invasion, and the fair city waited silent, almost deserted, while her defenders strove for her safety.



FOR THE PROTECTION OF VENICE, THE BELOVED CITY

Among the provisions for the defense of Venice in the hour of invasion were the guns mounted upon pontoons in the marshes at the mouths of the Piave and other rivers. Disguised as islands or house-boats, the pontoons frequently shifted their positions and the guns furnished effective protection.

Central News Service

the water up to their knees, but also the munition cases, without taking time for sleeping or eating." Submarine chasers ran up into the rivers to disperse Austrian patrols. Hydroplanes bombed bridges. And aviators were tireless in making bombing and observation flights and keeping the different sections of the army informed of one another's movements.

THE GULF OF VENICE PROTECTED BY MINE FIELDS.

Two weeks after Monfalcone and Grado had been abandoned, "the work of forming the principal ring of defense around the city of the Doges was confided to the machine gunners of the navy." As, fifteen hundred years earlier, fugitives from the terrors of Attila's invasion had taken refuge in the marshes and founded there the city, Venice, again the safety of the Venetian people depended partly upon the waters. We have noted how the Lower Piave had been flooded. The whole region of the northern shore of the Venetian Gulf was inundated and protected by mine fields. The Gulf, therefore, was converted into an isolated sea. Secret channels in the bottom of the lagoons were known to none but war pilots, who alone could safely navigate even the smallest boats there. Moving about among the marshy islands, a great fleet of floating batteries furnished a strong defense. An eyewitness gives the following account of these batteries:

"Each is camouflaged to represent a tiny island, a garden patch, or a house boat. Floating on the glass-like surface of the lagoons, the guns fire a few shots and then change position—making it utterly impossible for the enemy to locate them. The entire auxiliary service of supplying this floating army has been adapted to meet the lagoon warfare. Munition dumps are on boats, constantly moved about to prevent the enemy spotting them. Gondolas and motor boats replace the automobile supply lorries customary in land warfare. Instead of motor ambulances, motor boats carry off dead and wounded. Hydro-aeroplanes replace ordinary fighting aircraft."

THE DARING EXPLOIT OF LIEUTENANT RIZZO.

There were, besides, stationary land batteries and armed ships of all sizes, including huge flat-bottomed British monitors carrying the largest guns. Swift little armored motor boats darted about, "the cavalry of the marshes," running up to the very trenches, where the enemy lines bordered a river, and attacking companies that attempted to cross the lagoons.

On the night of December 9, 1917, when the invasion was still swinging on, a spirited exploit was performed by Lieutenant Rizzo, of the Italian Navy. With two small launches he approached Trieste Harbor, which was carefully shut in by a network of steel wire studded with mines. In defiance of the danger from explosion, in case a jar should set off the mines, Lieutenant Rizzo and his men cut the wire cables that held the structure to the piers, until the "cobweb of metal and explosives" dropped down to the sands. Then they ran their boats into the harbor near the great vessels, *Monarch* and *Wien*, and launched their torpedoes. Both ships were injured, the *Wien* fatally, so that she sank to the bottom. The Italian launches escaped miraculously through a storm of shrapnel and gunfire, under the brilliant illumination of searchlights and bursting shells, while the Austrians sought to discover whence the attack had come.

SUMMARY OF THE CAUSES OF THE GREAT DISASTER.

When, under an unusual, sudden strain, a man's physical system suffers collapse, the breakdown is often reasonably accounted for by the discovery of a "complication" of disorders or circumstances. The same reasonable explanation applies to national catastrophes, although, in the immediate shock and confusion, this fact may be overlooked. So, for Italy's "*Caporetto*" there are reasons, military, economic, moral, and personal. The one most patent, and therefore most emphasized, at the moment, was the local break in morale, which in itself was due to a complex and intricate tangle of causes. The Russian failure,

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the consequent spread of Bolshevik tenets, the unsatisfied demands of Socialists and pacifists, the exhaustion of mind and body resulting from months of terrible war conditions without relief or refreshment,—these are a few of the threads that wove the web to entangle unwary feet.

When we get close enough to see the military situation, the disaster is even more accountable. With General Capello's command, the Second Army,

blow is that the Italian positions were those suitable for offensive movements, such as the army had been developing along the eastern front, rather than for defense. The foremost lines were far the strongest and the guns had been pushed far forward. When the first lines were put under sudden bombardment and weakened by clouds from shells of asphyxiating and mustard gas, then attacked during an unexpected lull in the artillery storm, there was not a



A DARING NIGHT EXPLOIT IN THE HARBOR OF TRIESTE

Arrived at Trieste in torpedo boats on the night of December 9-10, 1917, Luigi Rizzo and some of his men made their way in on motor scouts, cut the mined wire entanglements and approached the vessels, *Monarch* and *Wien*, discharging torpedoes which sank the *Wien* and damaged the *Monarch*. Austrian search-lights swept the skies for air raiders while the seamen crept in unperceived. They escaped to their base in safety.

several times too large for one officer's efficient control, and its 4th Corps, poorly trained and filled up from new drafts, in a sector far removed from the commander's field of action, there was difficulty enough, had General Capello himself been able to direct affairs. But his illness had left control in the hands of General Montuori, who was unacquainted with the region. General Capello under the press of unusual circumstances resumed his responsibility before he was considered fit to "carry on."

THE ITALIAN POSITIONS NOT SUITED FOR DEFENSE.

Another condition that explains what happened under the Austro-German

firmly held "battle position" behind them for support. Worse than all else, enemy troops, masquerading in Italian uniforms, carried out a "collective deception."

"It was Italy's misfortune to be attacked at the time of her weakness and at the place where she was weakest." More astonishing than the retreat was the immediate rally after such an experience. That the spirit of the army as a whole was far from being demoralized had ample demonstration before the year was over. And now, behind the army stood firmer walls of support than before, due to a newly aroused spirit in government and in people—even in the Allied command.



CAPTIVE BUT UNDISMAYED

French colonial troops awaiting roll-call in the German prison camp at Zossen, south of Berlin. The troops of the Fatherland had full proof of their valor in the recapture of Forts Douaumont and Vaux, and in the second battle of the Aisne when they flung themselves against the machine-gun-infested slopes of the Craonne plateau. Ruschin



RUSSIANS IN FRANCE

In 1916 a contingent of Russians were transported to France by the Trans-Siberian railway. A Russian brigade under General Lochwitsky was stationed in front of Courcy in the battle of the Aisne, and its members were burning to inspire by their conduct their liberated countrymen, and show what Russians could achieve when properly disciplined and led. In a day of fierce fighting they took all their objectives. French Official



Photo—Vandyk

M. GEORGES CLEMENCEAU
Premier of France, 1917-20



Russians in France in 1917

CHAPTER XLVIII

On the French Front in 1917

THE ATTEMPT TO SMASH THE GERMAN DEFENSES AND BREAK THROUGH FAILS

THE Allied offensive in 1916 had nowhere achieved decision. German attack at Verdun had held the French; British gains on the Somme had been limited to a depth of six or seven miles on a narrow front; Italy's blow at Gorizia had fallen short; and Russia's campaign after initial victories had broken down. In the winter, the High Command took counsel and decided upon a further general attack co-ordinated upon all fronts.

THE GERMAN GENERAL STAFF SURVEYS THE SITUATION.

The enemy, facing the situation squarely, took stock of assets and liabilities and made wise provision to anticipate the offensive and thus secure—even to a limited degree—the initiative. He knew that as an ally upon Bulgaria only in the Balkans and upon Turkey merely in the east. On the other hand, he sensed the growing weakness of Russia, perceived the widening cracks in the framework of the mighty colossus whose shadow had hitherto darkened the fortunes of the Central Powers—and he determined to profit by its fall. Until Russia were out of action, Italy might safely be left, for the German Staff felt she was too much under the influence of England to make a separate peace, even if she were defeated. On the Western

Front a difficult problem had to be faced.

WITHDRAWAL TO THE LINE OF DEFENSE ALREADY PREPARED.

The fierce conflict on the Somme had left the Germans with an awkward salient in their line. It was urgently necessary for them to improve their position or run the risk of being enveloped by the Allies. An attack against the enemy at the point where he had broken through was the most obvious remedy, but the German Chief of Staff could not venture a great offensive in the Somme region at a time when he knew attacks were imminent on other parts of the Western and Eastern fronts. There remained only the alternative of withdrawal, and Hindenburg decided to adopt this expedient and transfer his line of defense which had been pushed in at Péronne at one point and bulged out to the west of Bapaume, Roye and Noyon, at others to the chord position Arras, St. Quentin, Soissons. The retreat was a great blow to the German army, to the people at home, to their allies abroad. For the time, until its soundness as a strategical manœuvre was borne in upon them by bitter experience, it seemed a great triumph for the British and French, who hastened to exploit it for propagandist purposes.

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Retreat began on March 16, 1917, and left in its wake a devastated and shell-scarred wilderness where rivers had been dammed to flood wide areas, where towns and villages lay in blackened heaps, where spectral shapes stood that once were trees, and where silence replaced the peaceful murmur of a smiling countryside. The British and French followed slowly for all railways, roads and bridges had been obliterated, and there was fighting with rear-guards until the fluid line crystallized into shape once more. By the first week in April, German dispositions in the new Siegfried (or Hindenburg) Line were complete and commanders could appreciate the foresight which had engineered such a great strategic "stand to," which, although it abandoned the initiative to the enemy for the time being, gave favorable local conditions and shortened the line in a way that made it possible to build up strong reserves.

WHERE AND WHAT WAS THIS NEW HINDENBURG LINE.

The new line hung like a cable between Vimy ridge and the Craonne plateau. In making it, the Germans, profiting from experience in earlier battles, had departed from their old pattern of defenses. "In future," writes the veteran Marshal von Hindenburg, so closely associated with its conception, "our defensive positions were no longer to consist of single lines and strong points but of a network of lines and groups of strong points. In the deep zones thus formed we did not intend to dispose our troops on a rigid and continuous front but in a complex system of nuclei and distributed in breadth and depth. The defender had to keep his forces mobile to avoid the destructive effects of the enemy fire during the period of artillery preparation, as well as voluntarily to abandon any parts of the line which could no longer be held, and then to recover by a counter-attack all the points which were essential to the maintenance of the whole position. These principles applied in detail as in general.

"We thus met the devastating effects of the enemy artillery and trench-

mortar fire and their surprise infantry attacks with more and more deeply distributed defensive lines and the mobility of our force. At the same time we developed the principle of saving men in the forward lines by increasing the number of our machine guns and so economizing troops." In the maze of these deep lines before the many-angled fire of machine guns French attack was to experience tragic check at the Craonne plateau.

THE BRITISH AGREE TO FOLLOW FRENCH DIRECTION.

In the Allied plan of attack—a plan considerably modified by the Hindenburg retreat—it was arranged that combined British and French attacks should be made on the two pivots of the new German position. Thus, British operations against Arras on a lesser front were to be preparatory to more decisive operations by the French against the Craonne plateau, to be begun a little later on, and in the subsequent stages of which the British were to co-operate. If this combined offensive did not produce the full effects hoped for, it was arranged that the British should shift their attack to the Flanders area, and the French should lend their aid where it was most needed. To achieve such co-ordination, unity in command was essential and for the first time in the history of the war the British commander consented to place himself under a French generalissimo, Nivelle of Verdun fame. Sir Douglas Haig reserved to himself, however, the right of deciding when to break off his own action.

Nivelle's appointment to succeed Joffre, in preference to Pétain and Foch, had in it something of surprise. That he was an advocate of decisive action appealed to a more or less war-weary France, faint-hearted over the "nibbling" methods of Joffre, and the "limited objectives" of the Somme and Verdun fields. He was more popular than Pétain whose coldness and sarcasm made enemies among his equals, readier with a colossal scheme than Foch, at this time believed exhausted after a series of great actions. His war record was a distinguished one:



WANTON GERMAN DESTRUCTION OF MACHINERY DURING THE RETREAT OF 1917

Courtesy Red Cross Magazine

at the Battle of the Aisne in September, 1914, he had saved a portion of the VII Corps from destruction; at Verdun from command of the III Corps he had passed to the command of the Verdun army and had recovered considerable ground by the end of

THE BRITISH BEGIN WITH GAINS AROUND ARRAS.

The first storm in the West broke just after the beginning of spring. On April 9, British attack at Arras gave signal for the opening of the great offensive. For days masses of artillery and trench-mortars pounded the enemy's lines and then the infantry moved forward with considerable success. The high-water mark was reached, April 14, when Sir Douglas Haig, but for his agreement with Nivelle, would have broken off the fight, but the French offensive had already begun—and begun badly—and the British were forced to continue fighting at a disadvantage to relieve the pressure upon the French army.

The French line from Soissons to west of Rheims faced enemy positions of extraordinary difficulty as attested by the fact that since the first struggle on the Aisne heights in September, 1914, little had changed in the sector. In the Hindenburg retreat only a short alteration of the line north-east of Soissons had been made. The first section of the front from Vauxaillon to Troyon, perhaps the most difficult and therefore most important, was the western end of the Craonne plateau descending on the south to the Aisne valley and on the north to the little Ailette river. A



NIVELLE, SUCCESSOR TO JOFFRE

In the first battle of the Aisne, Nivelle performed brilliant service. He became division commander in February, 1915, and fourteen months later commanded the 3rd corps at Verdun. Later in the year he succeeded Pétain as commander of the Verdun army.

the year. It was his belief that artillery would decide the fate of the war; and he urged a decisive blow, not "to weaken but to crush," not "to break up" but "to break through." What Pétain had performed on a narrow two-three mile front at Verdun, Nivelle proposed to do with multiplied forces on a wide front of fifty miles from Soissons to Rheims, with the object of piercing into the plain and capturing Laon, the pivot of the Siegfried Line and the source of supplies for every man and gun around the *massif* of St. Gobain and the Chemin des Dames.

reference to the map will show that the German line ran just west of Laffaux, crossed to the south bank of the river at Missy-sur-Aisne and continued to a mile or two east of Chavonne whence it struck back across the river, north-east through Soupir to Troyon where it touched the Chemin des Dames. Southwards the plateau here breaks into five spurs intersected by ravines cut by brooks running into the Aisne. The thickly wooded sides afforded cover for innumerable nests of machine guns, so situated as to pour a deadly, many-angled fire upon the attacking infantry.



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE THE SECOND BATTLE OF THE AISNE



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THE CHEMIN DES DAMES AND CONTIGUOUS COUNTRY

The Chemin des Dames, constructed in the eighteenth century for the daughters of Louis XV, runs along the high ridge of ground between the Aisne and the Ailette. From its hard limestone rock was quarried much of the stone of which Rheims Cathedral was built. After intense fighting, the French stormed this position in 1917.

THE CHEMIN DES DAMES AND THE QUARRIES OF CRAONNE.

Where the spurs join the main ridge and along its summit runs the famous Chemin des Dames, before the struggle a beautiful shady highway made for his daughters by Louis XV. Next to Verdun the Chemin des Dames has witnessed more bitter fighting, perhaps, than any other region on the French front. To the north the plateau drops steeply to the narrow marshy valley of the Ailette. Northwards again rises a lesser plateau beyond which lie the plain and city of Laon—the goal of Nivelles's campaign. For hundreds of years the Craonne plateau has been quarried for building-stone and in its depths run countless passages, caves, and grottos which afforded secure assembly points for troops, and bomb-proof shelters against the French artillery. The Germans had literally lined these caverns with machine guns so constructed that they could be whirled behind granite walls whenever necessary to avoid concentrated French fire. A correspondent who visited the strongholds later in the year after the French had captured them, writes: "I went down into one of the quarries. The opening was a tiny hole in solid granite. I went down and down in pitch blackness. The officer and I stumbled along, fumbling at solid rock walls. A soldier came up to meet us with an electric lamp, and below we could see a line of wooden steps, at least a hundred of them. Then we came into a great arched cavern that led into another similar one, and then to

another, and then into long galleries and through dark, narrow passages, where we had to stoop low, only to come into other caverns with exits leading in various directions and so on until, at least half a mile from the German rear, from where we entered, we walked out again into daylight. That quarry alone was big enough to secrete 5000 German soldiers who poured from a dozen similar exits when the French infantry advanced. Every gallery of these underground fortresses the Germans raked with machine guns when stormed." Above ground their trenches ran line upon line up the gentle slope to the summit; on the reverse side nestled their heavy artillery in safe positions.

NO LABOR SPARED TO SUPPLY NATURAL DEFICIENCIES.

The second sector of the line from Troyon to Craonne embraced the east end of the highway and plateau, narrowest at Hurtebise Farm where it measured only 100 yards but rose to 650 feet. Craonne at the eastern extremity towered over the rolling Champagne country below.

From Craonne to Bétheny the twelve-mile front in its course dropped to marshy woodlands below the plateau and then entered the level Champagne terrain, unbroken save for the Fresnes and Brimont heights. Southwards it continued to Rheims, north and east of which rise the hills of Nogent l'Abbesse and Moronvilliers respectively. This was the weakest part of the front, but the Germans had expended great labor on its defenses,



QUARRIES OF FRANCE IN THE HANDS OF THE GERMANS

Quarries in the occupied area might serve the invader as mines of wealth or as walls of defense. Where such excavations occurred on the line of battle they could be easily transformed into strong fortifications or stations for sheltering troops. On the Craonne heights the extensive quarries and natural caves were well utilized.



GERMANS AT WORK ON AN UNDERGROUND GALLERY

Trenches and galleries hewn from stone or solidly constructed of concrete are more enduring than walls of earth; but all kinds were made by the Germans in their miles upon miles of trench and tunnel. Here they are setting up supporting walls and roofing of timber in an earthen gallery. As the cut of a garment depends on the cloth, the style of trench is determined somewhat by the material at hand.



MODERN FACE ARMOR

French poilu equipped in steel mask to protect him against scattering shrapnel fire.

studding it with pill-boxes containing machine guns, and in the event it proved as great a barrier as the Aisne heights.

The French forces were still in three groups: the Northern under Franchet d'Esperey, the Central under Pétain, the Eastern under de Castelnau, with a fourth or reserve group under Micheler. Nivelle planned to put into action the centre and right of this last group between the Ailette and Rheims in the following order: the VI Army under Mangin from Laffaux to Hurtebise was to attack the German salient from west, south, and east; the V

Army under Mazel from Hurtebise to Rheims was to pierce through the gap, Craonne—Berry-au-Bac, into the plain of Laon, and simultaneously turn the Rheims hills from the north. The day after the main attack, which Nivelle confidently expected would reach Laon itself, General Anthoine was to hurl the IV Army against the Moronvilliers heights to the east of Rheims, while Duchesne with the V Army was to be in reserve.

Against Micheler's group of armies were those of the Crown Prince, the VII German Army under von Boehn to the west of Craonne, and eastward the I German Army under Fritz von Below. They had been ordered to hold their ground at all hazards, and to retake at once any yard of ground lost.

THE WEATHER UNFAVORABLE FOR ARTILLERY ATTACK.

The winter of 1916-17 was an exceptionally bad one in Europe: it was followed by a late, cold and stormy spring. The English attack at Arras had been delivered amid hurricanes of rain and snow and sleet and the artillery work had been correspondingly crippled by the limitations of aerial guidance under such conditions. On the 8th of the month, Nivelle's artillery preparation began and grew in volume until the 16th, when at 6 A.M. amid stinging hail the infantry went over the top. Alas for their sanguine hopes of finding the enemy's lines broken and pulverized! Where their really furious bombardment had been effective the Germans had taken refuge in the caves and passages beneath, and swept down the advancing Frenchmen with deadly machine-gun fire.

Again and again the waves hurled themselves against the spurs: the day ended as it had begun, in driving sleet; though something in the way of local gains had been made—the crowning point of Hurtebise, a sentinel hillock of the gap between Craonne and Brimont, a position threatening Brimont and Fresnes, many prisoners, and many guns, yet no gap had been made. Nivelle had said, "Laon," and officers and rank and file realized that the ambitious plans had miscarried, that



CRAONNE, ON THE CHEMIN DES DAMES

At the western extremity of the plateau stands the town of Craonne, rising above the level Champagne country as the bow of a ship from the sea. In the Napoleonic wars it was the site of a great battle, and its crooked streets witnessed severe fighting during the great war as the battle line surged back and forth.



LAON, THE CAPITAL OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AISNE

Before the war Laon possessed numerous ancient buildings and three gates belonging to thirteenth-century fortifications. The Romans fortified it, and it was important under the Franks, being the residence of the Carolingian kings in the tenth century. In modern times Napoleon was defeated here by the Germans under Blücher in 1814.

Ruschin

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reverse was theirs instead of victory. This bloody repulse proved the bitterest, indeed the most overwhelming disappointment to the French leaders and their men.

THE FRENCH SOLDIERS THROW THEMSELVES AGAINST THE GERMAN DEFENSES.

On the second day the weather was equally bad, yet the battle line

Ailette and Suippe it had captured 23,000 prisoners, 175 guns, 119 trench mortars and 412 machine guns. Territorially it now held the banks of the Aisne from Soissons to Berry-au-Bac, all the spurs of the Aisne heights and the centre of the tableland. But the dominating height of Craonne still resisted, the hills of Brimont and Fresne had not been turned, and in



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WHERE GENERAL ANTHOINE WAGED WAR

The western end of the area in which Nivelle waged the second battle of the Aisne, and the scene of the fight of General Anthoine's army. It was impossible to take Reims without turning the enemy's strong positions on the Nogent l'Abbesse and Moronvilliers hills to the west of the city.

lengthened as Anthoine's army passed into attack against the Moronvilliers hills with the object of broadening the entrance into the plain for Micheler's centre. For the next five days severe fighting raged on the whole front but everywhere along the line the "elastic defense," which had been a departure for the Germans, justified itself, as the machine guns in their hiding places survived the artillery preparation and kept the situation well in hand. The French had gained ground under surprising difficulties but they had not secured the key positions.

Twelve days after the battle started the French Headquarters published a summary of its gains: between the

the Moronvilliers heights the gains were inconsiderable.

BITTER DISAPPOINTMENT AT THE FAILURE OF NIVELLE'S PLANS.

There was another side of the picture: long and ever-lengthening casualty lists, a certain unmistakable demoralization among the rank and file, and a series of definite protests from a number of officers.

French expectations had been tuned to a high pitch by the audacity and confidence of Nivelle's plan and the reaction was sharp. Instead of strong support for the "break through" policy came reversal to the strategy of the Somme, the advance on a limited front, and a cry for the man who had success-

fully used it to regain French territory around Verdun. In the crisis the old office of Chief of General Staff was revived in the Ministry of War—the holder of which had to pass upon the plans of all the commanders and estimate the various resources in *matériel*—and Pétain was appointed to fill it. Meanwhile the army was struggling on in vain endeavor to make Nivelle's plan succeed, but it was dashing itself to pieces against the German stand, and on May 15, Pétain succeeded to the office of Nivelle with the task once again of restoring the French army. Foch replaced Pétain at Staff Headquarters and Fayolle assumed direction of the Central Group of armies.

THE STRUGGLE FOR LOCAL STRONGHOLDS CONTINUES FOR WEEKS.

A new battle had begun, April 30, in the Moronvilliers sector. Here the French made scattered gains and finally at the end of three weeks captured the whole of the summit ridge. May 4 and 5 the left and centre came into action and fire swept the entire front again. In this fighting the French captured Craonne promontory itself so that nothing now blocked their vision towards Laon. The Germans counter attacked fiercely but registered no gains. During June the French made a slight advance and improved their line with the net result that they managed to secure the enemy's points of observation over the valley of the Aisne east and west, without themselves winning a line from which they could command the valley of the Ailette to the north over the historic plateau crowned by the Cathedral of Laon. German shock troops (*stosstruppen*) launched nearly forty local attacks over the period of the following three months to recover such vantage points as the California and Casemates plateaux (or Winterberg as the Germans called them), Hurtebise Farm, and the apex of the

salient between Laffaux and Vauxailon—but with no success. The fighting along the Chemin des Dames ridge was perhaps the most bitter of the war.

While the French stood upon the defensive, Pétain was restoring the army: strengthening its morale, read-



NOTRE DAME CATHEDRAL, LAON

Before the tide of battle surged over it, this cathedral was one of the finest twelfth-century Gothic edifices in France. Finished in 1225, it is surrounded by numerous towers, those two flanking the façade being adorned with huge oxen.

Ruschin

justing and in some cases replacing his staff, strengthening the lines, the aerial service and the artillery, and putting into the task all the meticulous care and attention to detail that had prefaced the attacks in the preceding autumn on Forts Vaux and Douaumont. When he took over command he told Sir Douglas Haig that it would be fully two months before anything more could be expected of the French army, and, as a matter of fact, it was October before Pétain again took the offensive in this area. It must be conceded that the second battle of the Aisne was a reverse: it had failed of its

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purpose to break the Laon pivot of the Siegfried Line, it had wasted both French and British troops (for the latter had had to hold on at Arras to relieve the strain on the French army long after the legitimate point was passed).

NIVELLE'S PLAN IMPOSSIBLE WITH FORCES AT HIS DISPOSAL.

The failure was not entirely due to bad generalship: the unusually bad

to throw in reserves where most needed.

Again, Nivelle's attempt to destroy, almost consecutively, the enemy's different lines of defense failed. Instead of separating these successive offensives by days or weeks, he allowed only a few hours to intervene. The second position was to be carried six hours after the first, and twenty-four hours after preliminary attack the war of



A FIELD FORTIFICATION SUPPLY POST

These great cylindrical baskets were used to make redoubts, barriers and breastworks. Placed upright and filled with earth or sand, they were arranged several rows deep both as to depth and height and sometimes half sunk into the ground, and with the limbs of trees as reinforcements they were commonly used for field fortifications.

weather of the opening days slowed up advance; an accident in the V Army Intelligence Corps gave the enemy wind of expected attack; the new tanks had broken down. But, in general, the reverse *was* due to bad judgment. Attack had been made on a broad front with the idea of not allowing the Germans to concentrate at vital points, but these points were so strong that special effort was needed to reduce them, and this was not possible in such an extended movement. Moreover, the mobile defense of the Germans and the shortening of their line allowed them

movement was to begin. The idea was excellent, the means were inadequate. The attempt to smash at the same time both the first and second German positions defeated its own end inasmuch as neither line was sufficiently damaged. Everywhere the destruction was insufficient and imperfect, without counting the blockhouses that were left practically intact and which gave so much trouble. Instead of overrunning the first position without striking a blow, it had to be conquered foot by foot. The tanks on which the French had counted so much could



SHELL FACTORY AT CREUSOT

In this factory shells of large calibre are made. After they have been forged they are shaped. This factory received most of its steel from the Bethlehem Steel Works and from England. From being ill-supplied with such projectiles in the first year of the war France came to supply Russia and her allies in the Balkans.



FRENCH ARTILLERY TRAIN

Railway artillery has become as varied in its design as field artillery. Each type of railway mount has certain tactical uses and it is not considered desirable to use the different types interchangeably. Thus, there are those that gave the gun all-round fire, those which provided limited traverse for the gun, and those which allowed no movement for the gun or the carriage but were used on curved tracks to give the weapons traverse aim.



INSTRUCTION AT A FRENCH SCHOOL OF GUNNERY

This picture and the three following show stages in the firing of a gun—in this case, a "75." Here the cannoniers are ready for action. Facing the gun on either side stand the loader, the layer and the firer. Just beyond is the ammunition wagon, turned down and opened, behind which, crouching on his heels, is the fuse-puncher between two other men whose duty it is to serve out the cartridges. The instructor stands at the left.



THE LOADER RECEIVES THE CARTRIDGE

In this picture the same gun-crew is seen from the rear. The loader, standing between the wagon and the gun, has just taken in his hands a cartridge which has been passed to him by the man crouching at his left, who, in turn, had received it from the fuse-puncher. The next act is to load the gun.



THE ACT OF LOADING THE GUN

Here we have the same point of view as in the first picture, but with the men in slightly changed positions. The loader is inserting the cartridge in the breech of the gun, while the layer and the firer have taken their places astride their seats—an indication that the gun is properly laid, in other words, that the spade is sufficiently imbedded in the earth. The next step is to fire the shot.



CLEANING OUT BREECH AND BORE

If the shell, which contains the powder and which remains in the breech after the shot has been fired, fails to be driven out by the ejector, the firer must thrust a rammer down through the mouth of the gun to push the shell out of the breech. For cleaning the bore of the gun, a swab is used.

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not enter the action. Finally, due to unwise publication of plans, there was no strategic nor tactical surprise. No preparation escaped the enemy, who judged how to receive the attack and make the counter-thrust.

A GERMAN VIEW OF THE FRENCH OFFENSIVE.

Indisputably, the principle of the "break-through" is excellent. The Germans did almost the same thing in their 1918 March offensive. But in modern warfare, tactics are intimately linked to armament and effectives, and on the Aisne the vision was too great. The end and the method were not compatible with the means and material at hand. The finest military conceptions are only valuable if finely executed, and in April it must be admitted that the command was worse than mediocre.

Field-Marshal von Hindenburg's verdict on the Arras-Aisne-Rheims battle must complete this account of its first phase. "In my judgment the general result of the great enemy offensive in the West had not been unsatisfactory hitherto . . . Though gaining a good deal of ground, our enemies had never succeeded in reaching more distant goals, much less in passing from the break-through battle to open warfare."

On the British front in conformance with the general scheme the Flanders battle flared up at the end of July, and did not die down until December. As on the Somme neither of the two adversaries could raise the shout of victory, though in November the British gained a striking success on another part of the line at Cambrai.

PÉTAIN REGAINS THE GROUND LOST AROUND VERDUN THE YEAR BEFORE.

In the latter half of August after a space of nine months the magic word of Verdun again thrilled the heart of France. After a three days' bombardment Pétain sent the French II Army forward astride of the Meuse, on an eleven-mile front. Success was immediate. Within a week almost all the objectives had been taken, and held in spite of German counter-attack. On September 8 another slight gain

was made. The French had advanced to a penetration of 14 miles. All the fortifications between Avocourt Wood, Le Mort Homme, Corbeaux and Cumières Woods, Côte de Talou, Champ-neuve, Mormont Farm, Hill 240 and Fosses Wood had been taken. The French had regained the positions they had held in February, 1916.

In October Pétain's preparations were complete for a renewed stroke on the Aisne. As an example of his meticulous care in all departments, in his arrangements for transportation, every army corps had a supply station directly behind it where there was a platform 350 yards long, for discharging heavy shells, another platform the same length for light shells, another for engineers' supplies, another for macadam for roads and another for food.

THE WHOLE OF THE CHEMIN DES DAMES IS TAKEN.

Although the Germans had lost their observation posts commanding the Aisne, yet they believed that their positions south of the Ailette would stand any amount of bombing. On the 17th, Pétain began searching out these positions, hidden in quarry caverns, sometimes with 6-inch and sometimes with 8-inch guns. Having ascertained them by the German return fire, on the 20th he added some batteries of 15-16-inch guns and for three days thundered away until the rocks crumbled and the caverns lay exposed. Aeroplanes observed the breaches and then into them poured a steady stream of shrapnel from the famous French "75's," hitherto silent in hiding places near the front line. "Zero" was set for 5:15 on the 23rd and in mist and rain the French infantry pushed forward and carried Malmaison Fort in the centre and Allemant and Vaudesson on the left. Supported by a highly concentrated barrage of 16-inch shells and by squadrons of newly devised tanks, the infantry captured 10,000 prisoners and 70 heavy guns. The next day the Oise-Aisne Canal was reached, and the French consolidated their gains. Aviators found signs of preparation for the enemy's retreat which was inevitable,



"KEEP OUR LOVED ONES NOW FAR ABSENT"

A field post-office and letter box, the sight of which opens a whole realm of human history to the imagination. In a box perhaps somewhat similarly situated our "own soldier" has put his precious letters that we have devoured with such eagerness, and dwelt upon with such lingering care.



FRENCH MACHINE GUNS IN AN ORCHARD

Along the roadside a line of apple trees offers partial concealment for these gunners who have dug for themselves shallow pits as temporary gun positions. After months of trench fighting, with earthen or concrete walls shutting one in, and with shattered, desolated country lying on every side, open warfare on fresh ground makes a strange contrast.



GOING FORWARD TO THE ATTACK

A squadron of "Chars d'Assaut" or French baby tanks on the Aisne front. Because of the late spring and bad weather the ground proved impassable, and the tanks in a gallant attack near Pontavert designed to open the way for cavalry exploitation, halted at the German second line, and thereby added to the confusion and congestion of the arrested advance.

French Pictorial Service

as their positions south of the Ailette and on the western ridge of the Chemin des Dames could now be enfiladed from both east and west.

On November 14 the Germans withdrew behind the Ailette abandoning the western elevations on the Chemin des Dames, with the French close at their heels, and retired until they reached prepared positions on the

northern side of the valley of the Ailette. Thus by the offensive forty square miles were regained in the department of the Aisne. Pétain's operation had been a triumph for the old limited objective: less than half the front had been attacked but success so striking had followed that the enemy had had to evacuate all along the line.

MURIEL BRAY.



Yeomanry on the Edge of a Mine Crater

CHAPTER XLIX

On the British Front in 1917

DESPERATE FIGHTING IN MUD AND RAIN GAINS TERRITORY AT A TERRIBLE PRICE

WHEN, in November, 1916, active operations in the area of the Somme and the Ancre were no longer possible, Sir Douglas Haig directed the efforts of the armies there toward improvements and adjustments to pave the way for new advances in the spring. Trenches, roads and all means of communication required immediate and energetic attention. To help solve the serious transport problem, England and Canada contributed of their own rails, locomotives, and rolling stock; and engineers worked assiduously. And, in order to be ready to assault the strong enemy lines along the Ancre and north of that stream, the artillery was arranged in new positions.

THE BRITISH EXTEND THEIR LINES AND MAKE PROGRESS.

In January, a decision was reached among the Allies to extend the British front until it should reach as far south as Roye. Before the end of February this had been accomplished. Through January and February, many local attacks near the Ancre resulted in the gradual broadening of the reclaimed section, as the Germans evacuated Grandcourt, Serre, Gommecourt and other positions, one by one. This withdrawal of the enemy—a part of Hindenburg's plan of retreat to the strongly prepared Siegfried (or Hindenburg)

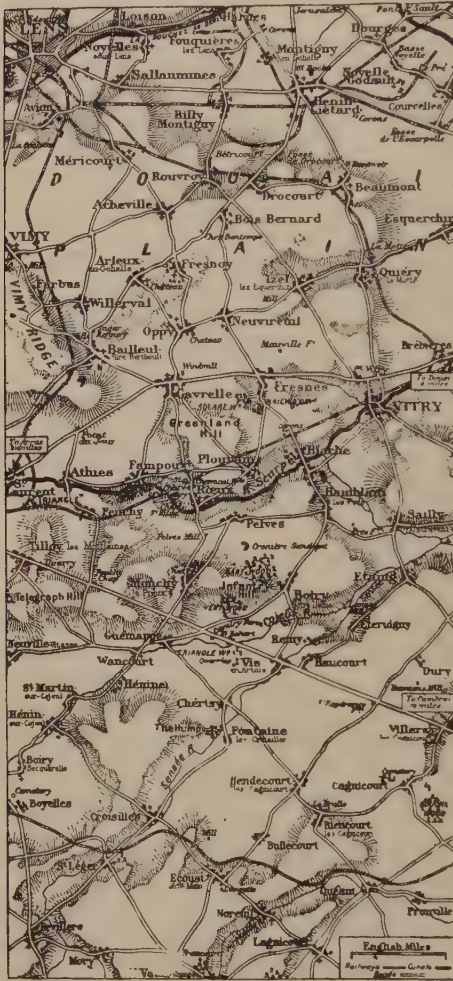
Line—was aided by the heavy frosts of an unusually cold January, which had hardened the ground and made it fit for the transfer of heavy guns. But when, in March, the British started to follow the main body of the retreat, springtime thaws had left the earth even more sodden and spongy than it had been in the autumn previous.

THE HINDENBURG LINE AND ITS SEVERAL BRANCHES.

The reasons for the strategic German retreat have been explained in the previous chapter. The Siegfried Line (renamed by the Allies the Hindenburg Line), branching from the old positions just south of Arras, running through Quéant, then southward, passing west of Cambrai and St. Quentin, crossing the Oise to the heights of the Aisne northeast of Soissons, lying along the Craonne plateau there, and extending on toward Rheims, "had been built to meet the experience of the Somme battle." Its wire entanglements were so deep and close that a man could not see through them, and its low machine-gun shelters of concrete were so constructed as to be invisible from the air and to resist even tank attacks. The plan of making it a development in depth where an enemy might become ensnared only to find himself facing stronger fortifications while under enfilading machine-

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gun fire, has already been described. In the northern area, further support was gained by the construction of two switch lines. First, the Oppy Line started north of Lens and made a broad bulge eastward through Oppy,



NORTHEAST AND SOUTHEAST OF ARRAS

The Douai and Cambrai roads, on either side the River Scarpe, crossed the Oppy Line and the Drocourt-Quéant Line, guarding the northern end of the Hindenburg Line.

returning to the main line southwest of Monchy. Beyond that, the Wotan Line (known better as the Drocourt-Quéant Line) was under construction between Drocourt (west of Douai) and Quéant (west of Cambrai) where it joined the Siegfried Line.

In drawing back to their new posi-
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tions from the salients south of Arras and Péronne, the Teuton armies overstepped all bounds set by civilization for a people at war, from the old Mosaic injunction against destroying fruit trees to the latest unwritten laws of the modern Christian world. With deliberate intent they left in their path utter waste,—trees felled one by one, dwellings looted and wrecked, sanctuaries defiled or razed, graves torn open, wells filled in or poisoned. What they could use, the spoilers carried away; all else they rendered useless. The growth, the thought, the labor of centuries they made as nothing.

BAPAUME AND PÉRONNE ARE OCCUPIED WITH LITTLE RESISTANCE.

When, in the middle of March, the British commander perceived that the enemy front was thinning in spots, a general advance of the forces between Arras and Roye was ordered. The forward push began on March 17 and proceeded at first without serious opposition, except for a position here and there that was contested more hotly than the rest by German rear-guard detachments. The greatest difficulty lay in the condition of the devastated country, where roads and bridges had been demolished and snares and mines had been planted. Nevertheless, on the first day, the British entered Chaulnes and Bapaume, while the French took possession of Roye. On the eighteenth, Péronne was occupied and in Nesle, farther south, French and British cavalry came together. With several miles of the west bank of the Somme under their control, the Allies contrived to make crossings at various points. At Brie, for instance, the engineers had a single-file foot-crossing over the ruined bridge ready in a few hours, while in less than four days the bridge was capable of supporting any traffic.

Day by day the conditions improved for the Germans, whose line was shortening and whose communication with their bases was growing more direct. Of the Allied troops exactly the reverse was true. And as the distance from their supplies broadened,



"RAGE NOT, ONLY WONDER!"

Ruthless, deliberate ruin lay in the wake of the German Army after its retreat in March, 1917. Looting, despoiling, wrecking, defiling, the hordes withdrew to their new lines. Upon some examples of their handiwork of destruction, as here in the Grande Place of Péronne, they set the derisive inscription, "Nicht ärgern, nur wundern!"



ON THE TRAIL OF THE HUN IN BAPAUME

The Australians, riding through the Rue de Péronne in Bapaume, beheld there such demolition as might be found in a town where earthquake shocks or a tornado had torn up and crumpled and crushed the buildings. But this was the intentional performance of twentieth century human beings. No wonder that a German soldier should have written, "We live now not like men, but like beasts," and "We can scarcely be looked upon as soldiers."

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enemy resistance stiffened. Yet, on April 2, north of the Bapaume-Cambrai road, where they were very near the Hindenburg Line, they captured some of its advance positions on a ten-mile front. By that time, von Hindenburg's armies were established in their newly fortified lines.

THE GERMAN RETREAT INTERFERES WITH ALLIED PLANS.

The retreat had not been actually a surprise to the Allies, who had noted

fighting to which General Haig had hoped to turn promptly would have to be delayed until the outcome of the French contest on the Craonne plateau might be known.

When the moving lines came to a halt the first week in April, the British armies from south to north stood as follows: Next to the French left, Sir Henry Rawlinson's Fourth Army had advanced to within about two miles of St. Quentin; Sir Hubert Gough's



TREES FELLED IN HASTE AT PÉRONNE

"Our pioneers have sawed and cut the trees which for days have fallen until the whole surface of the earth is swept clear," boasted the *Berliner Tageblatt*. Little orchard trees, too small to yield shelter, were destroyed as mercilessly as great roadside trees which (like those being cleared away by a British working party in the picture) became obstructions in the path of British advance. Some, because of haste, had been only partly cut through.

preparations indicating such a movement; indeed, Sir Douglas Haig felt that his efforts in the Ancre section had accelerated the German withdrawal. However, the plans he had made for the spring had to be modified in view of the change of front as well as for the sake of co-operation with the new French commander, General Nivelle, whose programme of operations has been set forth in the preceding chapter. The German salient between the Scarpe and the Ancre, which was to have been pinched between the British Third and Fifth Armies, had now dropped out. The intended attack upon Vimy Ridge could be undertaken; but the Flanders

Fifth Army, in the Bapaume region, had reached the very borders of the Siegfried Line; around Arras Sir Edmund Allenby's Third Army was ready for action; opposite La Bassée and Lens lay Sir Henry Horne's First Army; and beyond them, to the sea, extended the Second Army under Sir Herbert Plumer. The whole body numbered fifty-two divisions, as over against thirty in the battle of the Somme and seven at the time of the first battle of Ypres. It was by this time an army trained and tried, disciplined by sternest conflict yet inspired by a measure of success,—an army ready to go forward.

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THE ATTACK AROUND ARRAS INTENDED TO AID THE FRENCH.

The work appointed for the British was to occupy the attention of as large a number of the German troops as possible in the north, while the French were endeavoring to shake the southern pivot of the Siegfried Line. The first part of Sir Douglas Haig's original programme fitted well into this demand, inasmuch as Vimy Ridge, forming the key to the situation at the northern pivot, around Arras, was to have been one of the main objectives for his attack. On the Ridge the enemy commanded full observation over Arras, while his own communications were shielded from view. Established there since the fall of 1914, he had not lost his hold during the French offensives of 1915, and now, in April, 1917, he claimed the whole Ridge except a small section on the northwest. Once lost, this barrier of Vimy Ridge, unsurpassed on all the Western Front "alike in natural strength and in the extent of its fortifications," would hardly be regained, since its steep approach on the eastern side would make it an impregnable wall in the way of a German offensive. The following year, in fact, furnished a demonstration that this was true.

For the initial attack of April 9 the troops responsible were the Third Army and the Canadian Corps of the First Army, to the latter falling the honor of wresting Vimy Ridge from German mastery, "the greatest success for them in the whole war." After days of steady artillery preparation and insistent battling in the air to close the eyes of the foe, there came a hush on Easter Sunday, April 8, a day of clear, sunny, springlike weather. But, the following day, through cold, drizzling rain, in the gray dimness of early morning, under a barrage that was "one canopy of shrieking steel,"

the men sprang forth to the assault. Out of the ancient quarries and cellars of Arras, which had been transformed into an underground camp, electric-lighted and supplied with water, poured hosts of warriors. The battle had begun.



ADVANCES NEAR THE SOMME AND THE ANCRE

The solid black line marks the positions of July 1, 1916 (before the Battle of the Somme); the finely checkered line, those of March 1, 1917; the black and white line farther east, those of March 18, the shaded area indicating the German retreat.

THE CANADIANS TAKE VIMY RIDGE WITH A BOUND.

Forty minutes sufficed for the capture of practically all the German first positions. The Canadians were well up on the Ridge; the Scottish and English, to their right, were in the eastern suburbs of Arras; and South Africans were pushing forward with their usual determination. With a short pause before attacking each new defensive system, the contest went on successfully all day; and before the end of another day the whole of Vimy

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Ridge, even the difficult Hill 145, had been cleared of its Teutonic tenants; the German second position had been won all along the line; and at many points breaches had been made in the third system of defense. It must not

sturdy defense of the enemy. Heavy losses paid for this capture; but Monchy, like Vimy, was of great value for its wide outlook. The Germans did not yield it until several counter-attacks had been repulsed.



ARRAS CATHEDRAL IN RUINS

When in July, 1915, the first shells fell upon the cathedral, it burned for two days. The Descent from the Cross, attributed to Rubens, and other pictures were saved; but the building joined the company of ruins witnessing the barbaric work of German invasion. Ruschin.

be overlooked that the second system included works of extraordinary strength, such as had cost many days' delay in the early weeks on the Somme. Among the intricacies of the Harp, south of Tilloy-les-Mofflaines, the Railway Triangle, east of Arras, and other such fortifications, groups of tanks (of which each corps had its assignment) worked with excellent results.

The achievement of the third day, April 11, was the taking of Monchy-le-Preux on its little plateau south of the Scarpe River. Here cavalry worked with the infantry and tanks came up in time to help in overcoming the

THE OBJECTIVES OF THE BRITISH TAKEN VERY EARLY.

As in most of their offensives, the British had been fighting, these three days, under very adverse weather conditions. Thick snowfalls, interspersed with wind and rain squalls, made the way impossible for rapid advance of artillery. Nevertheless, on a twelve-mile front, they had driven half-way to the Drocourt-Quéant Line, and had secured two miles of the Siegfried Line at its northern end. Twelve thousand prisoners and one hundred fifty guns made a record capture for their armies in an equal period of time.

By the fourteenth of April, in the judgment of Sir Douglas Haig, it would have been wise to close the offensive at Arras, had it been an independent movement. The enemy had continued his withdrawal, leaving in the possession of his pursuers several towns with numbers of guns and great stores of all kinds. British posts now held a front extending from the outskirts of

Lens, through Vimy, Bailleul and Monchy to Fontaine-les-Croisilles, about seven miles southeast of Arras. If it had not been for the French assault about to begin, the British commander would have been satisfied to turn at once to the Flanders problem.

SUBSEQUENT ENGAGEMENTS DESIGNED TO HOLD THE GERMANS IN LINE.

The fighting during the remaining weeks of the Arras battle fulfilled its purpose of engaging great numbers of the enemy; but it drew heavily upon the man power of the British, as well. Every step was contested with sharpness. Fierce counter-attacks wrested



A VISTA ALONG THE SCARPE

This quiet, picturesque, tree-bordered bit of the River Scarpe at Rœux, east of Arras, lay in the path of the British offensive in April, 1917. Farther up its course, the Scarpe passes close beside the northern edge of Arras itself. The trade of the city is greatly facilitated by the canalization of the river.

Ruschin



AT DROCOURT, BETWEEN LENS AND DOUAI

The support line, branching from the main Hindenburg Line at Quéant and running almost due north to Drocourt, covered the railways to Douai and Cambrai. As it was under construction when the battle of Arras began, Prince Rupprecht threw division after division into the front to gain time for its completion, after the British had broken the first two German systems. The struggle raged around Garrelle, Rœux and Guémappe.

British Official

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back ground that had been won by awful effort. In this way, Gavrelle, Rœux, Guémappe and other villages were taken and retaken and taken again. Distinct attacks were opened on April 23, April 28 and May 3. On May 5, General Haig extended his active front to a length of sixteen miles, so as to include an attack by the Fifth Army upon the Hindenburg Line near

tion over the Douai plain. Unhappily, these engagements, in themselves remarkably skilful and successful, fell short of the full measure of their results, because General Nivelle's major operations on the Aisne did not accomplish their purpose. The experience had the unfortunate but natural effect of prejudicing the British against the plan of unity of command.



VIMY RIDGE AND THE DOUAI PLAIN

Bullecourt. The Australians there carried a section of the Line, and the enemy's positions were shaken along the whole front of attack. Bullecourt itself was not completely taken until after the middle of May. Up to the fifth of May, which Sir Douglas Haig regarded as the close of the immediate campaign, the British had taken more than 19,500 prisoners, 257 guns, including 98 heavy guns, with 464 machine guns, and 227 trench-mortars. They had gained about sixty square miles of territory,—somewhat more, in less than one month, than had resulted from the whole Somme offensive. Moreover, the possession of Vimy Ridge meant relief from a long-suffered menace, as well as new security due to the command of a wide field of observa-

PLANS TO STRENGTHEN THE BRITISH POSITION AROUND YPRES.

While around Arras the battle was moving through the final stages of consolidation and strengthening of lines, during the end of May, farther north preparations were being completed for a long-anticipated offensive near Ypres. There were far-reaching aims in this plan, which had been made toward the close of the previous year. If the venture proved successful, the German west flank, if not crushed, would be turned from its firm hold in Flanders, the dangerous bases of submarine mischief on the Belgian coast would be cut off from German control, and Lille and the other industrial towns of northern France be set free. The chances for

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success, however, were so greatly reduced by the change in conditions that had come about between the planning of the campaign and its prosecution that the wisdom of trying to carry it through must be questioned. The breaking down of the Russian ally was making possible the release from the Eastern Front of German

themselves of any considerable height, they overlooked the flat country around in such a way as to furnish the enemy, seated solidly upon them, with most advantageous means of observation. One writer likens the British in Ypres to foot-ball players in a stadium, with the Germans for the spectators on the benches, the sad difference being that



AMID THE RUIN THAT WAS YPRES

After centuries of varying experience this venerable city in Flanders has become the very symbol of tragedy. Her quaint dwellings, her famous Cloth Hall, her streets and her towers, crushed into dust and splinters, will breathe to coming generations a new story of romance and heroism, while their old glories remain only in the words and pictures of former historians and admirers. These "cliff-dwellings" are the remains of old French barracks.

British Official

hosts that could be poured as reserves into any section where pressure grew heavy. Nor were conditions on the other fronts helpful at this time. Finally, the devotion of British reserves to the subsidiary action at Arras and the unsatisfactory outcome of the French battle on the Aisne had further injured the prospects by causing delay and loss. But courage and enterprise were not wanting in Sir Douglas Haig and his supporters. While deploring the unfortunate circumstances, they set forward upon the campaign.

As a first move it was essential to clear the ridges before Ypres. Not in

shells instead of cheers were showered down into the arena. Another says that an offensive launched from Ypres without the precaution of clearing the ridges would put the British in the position of "fighting blindly against an enemy with a hundred eyes."

THE SMALL ELEVATIONS AROUND YPRES IMPORTANT.

Before the city, ridges running north and south formed an angle with a ridge running east and west. Where they came together, the village of Wyttschaete occupied the highest point, 260 feet above the sea. (The elevation of Ypres was 82 feet.) Close by stood the neighboring village of Messines.



GENERAL SIR HERBERT PLUMER

Hence the battle of June 7 is known as the battle of the Messines-Wytschaete Ridge (or, according to the Tommy, the Messines-"Whitesheet" Ridge). Little remained to mark the sites of the villages—only a "dust-heap" where Wytschaete had been, and the "tooth of the ruined church of Messines." Since the end of 1914 no open fighting had taken place upon the ridge, but the Germans had spared no labor or ingenuity in preparing the place for defense, and the British had been working steadily on a scheme for its destruction.

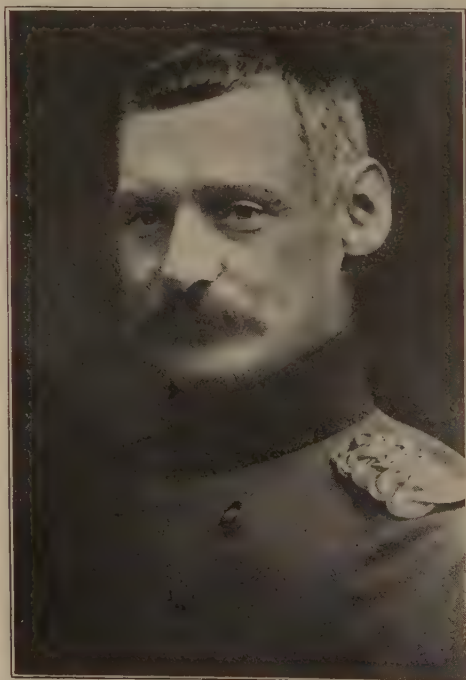
Forming a deep curve around the foot of the ridge the first system of German defenses presented a convex front of nearly ten miles for the British to carry at the outset of their attack. On the crest, the second system lay in another, or inner, curve. About two and a half miles back from the point of this small salient, the third system formed a chord of the arc, stretching from near Oosttaverne to Gapaard. This was to be the ultimate British objective in the opening battle. Besides a fourth system, about a mile

farther east, there were many cunningly placed trenches and redoubts in the woods north and northwest of the ridge, devised for raking an attacking party with a flanking fire.

From the Oise to the sea, the German front was commanded by the Crown Prince of Bavaria. North of the Douve river, which skirted the southern foot of the ridge, the Fourth Army under General Sixt von Arnim held the positions extending on to the sea. Flanking them on the south, the right wing of General Otto von Below's Sixth Army lay partly within the area of the prospective assault.

THE EXCELLENT ARRANGEMENTS OF GENERAL PLUMER.

The British troops involved were three of the six corps of the Second Army, whose commander, Sir Herbert Plumer, had shown himself as excellent a leader through the peculiarly difficult months of comparative inaction as during the stirring hours of the Second Ypres. That battle had been the last great action in which this army had taken part, and they had occupied the same position since the spring of 1915.



RUPPRECHT, CROWN PRINCE OF BAVARIA

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But the calm patience and steady resolution of their commander had held their confidence and kept their spirit and energy alert. He had been the "true warden of the Flanders marches."

In the work of preparation (which had been under way for more than a year), his performance attained the highest degree of excellence. Roads and railways were improved or constructed leading toward proposed ob-

neous explosion of nineteen mines on the morning of the assault. It was the culmination of a two-years'-long offensive underground, for mining had been going on all that time under the control of expert operators, members of great mining corporations. The galleries driven through the clay stratum aggregated five miles in length, and more than a million pounds of ammonal were used in the charges. Of the twenty-four mines prepared, four



AMBULANCE MEN OF THE RED CROSS AT WORK IN YPRES

The world will not soon forget that at Ypres on April 22, 1915, the Germans sent out their first wave of poison gas, adding a new horror to modern warfare. These Red Cross workers moving wounded through Ypres, when the city had become but a shell, were wearing masks as a protection against the poison fumes.

jectives; and provision was made for ample water supply by building cisterns, establishing sterilizing barges on the Lys river, and laying lines of pipe. So perfect were the arrangements that, when the battle was on, in one instance the pack carriers arrived with supplies four minutes after the troops had reached their objective, and each section was provided with water in about a half-hour after taking up a position on an objective that had been won.

NINETEEN MINES BLOW OFF THE TOPS OF THE HILLS.

The feature of the battle of the Mesines-Wytschaete Ridge which makes it unique in history was the simulta-

were outside the front chosen for this battle, and one was exploded by the enemy. Twenty-seven "camouflets" had been discharged to destroy countermines, in the course of two years, some by one side, some by the other.

Since the preparations for renewed activity were not secret, the enemy, in anticipation of a blow, made his arrangements, putting in new batteries, installing anti-tank guns, and experimenting in the building of concrete "pill-boxes;" as General von Arnim had divined that the ridge would be the object of attack, the garrisons were given orders to hold fast in the assurance of plentiful reserves for their support.

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But the hour of attack had not been revealed. General Haig usually succeeded in surprising his opponents with regard to the time of an offensive. So, although a week of tremendous

heard in London itself. Hill 60, on the north, which had given much trouble heretofore, was upheaved and removed. Amid the rolling dust of the shaken slopes, the infantry rushed forward. The aircraft which for days had prevented the enemy's flyers from advancing as far as their own front lines were still on guard to observe and to give aid.

Of the attacking troops, the Cheshires had spent the night in No Man's Land, and the German barrage, when it started, fell behind them. They, with an Ulster Division, worked through the Bois de l'Enfer and the other "Hell" positions situated between Messines and Wytschaete. The Ulster left wing was on the Wytschaete Ridge by shortly after five. They, with a South Ireland Division, then secured the site of Wytschaete village, which was theirs by noon. By seven o'clock, Messines had been cleared by the New Zealanders, whose right flank was protected by the Third Australian Division. After this successful start the Anzacs drove



THE MESSINES-WYTSCHAETE RIDGE

bombardment had been obliterating all that had formerly been left standing upon the ridge and incessant raids and air contests had been launched, the actual moment of opening the great struggle produced a shock.

THE EARTH SHAKES ON THE JUNE MORNING.

At ten minutes after three, on the morning of June 7, the nineteen mines flung up huge masses of the ridges, shaking the whole region and waking thunderous reverberations that were

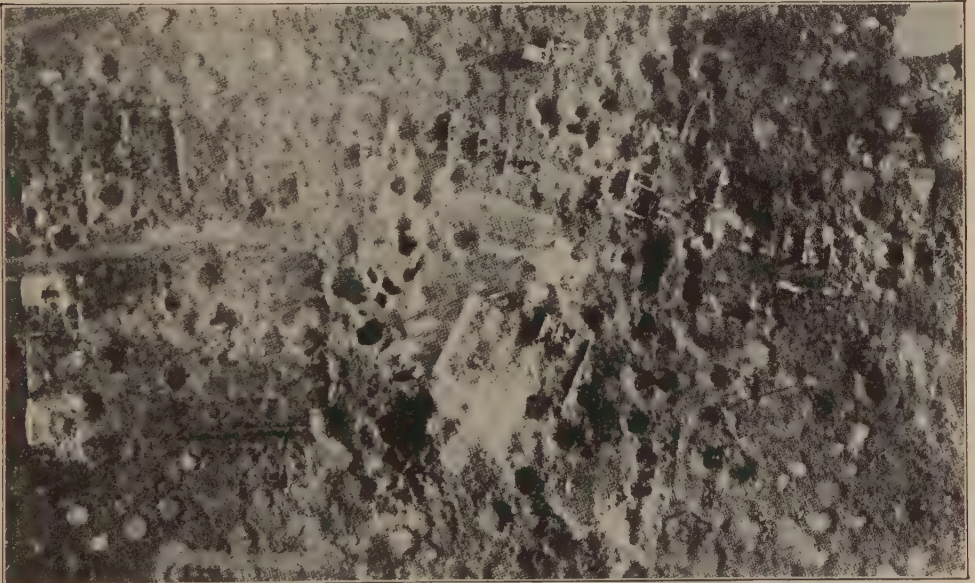
on toward the main objective, which they had won by midday. The northern positions were carried by English and Welsh troops, whose experiences varied in difficulty. By early afternoon, then, all were standing over against the German third system, ready for the last effort; and before nightfall the final objectives had been gained.

During the next week, further advance was made, so that before June 15, Gapaard had been taken, von Below's



MERCKEM IN 1915

Merckem, a Flemish village about seven miles north of Ypres, was situated in an important position between the ridge and the Houthulst Forest. It is here shown as photographed from the air in 1915, when it had suffered comparatively little from bombardment. The church (in the centre of the picture) just below the curve in the road, had lost its spire but otherwise seems to have been not greatly damaged; houses and roadways are clearly discernible.



MERCKEM IN 1917

This view of Merckem, again photographed from the air, after two years of artillery bombardment had done their shattering work, shows the same spot but altered almost beyond recognition. The curving road and the outline of the church foundations are the only clues for identification. During the last week in October, 1917, the French under General Anthoine and the Belgians under General Rucquoy by a concerted attack upon the boggy tongue of land known as the Merckem peninsula (east of the Yser-Ypres Canal) gained possession of it.

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army pressed back to the Warnave river, and strong positions north of the Ypres-Comines Canal cleared.

The Messines-Wytschaete battle—a brilliant introduction to the main Ypres contest—was tactically a masterpiece, a full triumph, crowning the long, skilful and painstaking preparations by Sir Herbert Plumer. It stands as "a perfect instance of the success of

which it had suffered, offered little solid support for transport and was so yielding that tanks were hardly anywhere able to come to the aid of the infantry. The rains which deluged the region after the offensive opened, clogged and drowned the ways until the progress made by the armies struggling through such sloughs and morasses seems all but miraculous.

Unlike the stiff, hard intrenched lines farther south, the German front here had been prepared by von Arnim so as to prove "elastic" when pressure was brought against it. A loose and lightly held first line would yield to assault only to plunge the attackers into a zone of fortifications built and arranged on a new plan. These were the thick concrete "pill-boxes," so constructed that they showed little above ground (and were thus almost safe from enemy guns), but were able to shelter a score or two of men whose machine guns could sweep a wide



PUSHING THE LINE BACK FROM YPRES

the limited objective." Hopes and expectations rose high, only too soon to droop heavily as the offensive proceeded against calamitous odds of circumstances.

THE RIDGES BACK TO PASSCHENDAELE NEXT TO BE TAKEN.

In order to secure the large, strategic ends in view, the slopes still in the enemy's hands, rising as far back as Passchendaele, must be won quickly to open the way for broader objectives. Granted good weather, this would be hard enough, for any movement was almost impossible to conceal from observers on those elevations, so that tunneling was necessary, though difficult. Moreover, the ground, with its natural drainage turned aside or dammed by the furious shelling from

range in the alleys of approach where attacking parties would be caught. Besides, the German guns were placed well back so as to drop a barrage upon troops thus entrapped, while numerous reserves were waiting in the second line to drive forward a counter-stroke and prevent the offensive from maturing.

THE BRITISH-FRENCH LINE IS RE-ARRANGED.

As a preliminary to the new stroke, the forces on the Allied front were rearranged as follows: General Rawlinson's Fourth Army replaced French troops on the Belgian coast; the Belgian Army, lying next on the south, drew in its right so as to make room for the First French Army under General Anthoine, which was to take part in the battle; the British Fifth Army,

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under General Gough, held the section around Ypres, from Boesinghe to the Zillibeke-Zandvoorde road; between them and the Lys lay General Plumer's Second Army; Sir Henry Horne's First Army occupied the line from Armentières to Arras; and from Arras south to the junction with the French stretched the Third Army, now under Sir Julian Byng, General Allenby's successor.

As a consequence of the arrival of the British contingent on the coast, the

heaviest blow was between the Zillibeke-Zandvoorde road (south-east of Ypres) and Boesinghe, where Sir Hubert Gough's Fifth Army was stationed. On the left, the French were to keep close touch, advancing side by side with their allies; the first step for General Plumer's army was to be a short one, for the purpose of spreading out the area of attack and engaging part of the enemy's artillery. The principal assault was made by English, Scottish, Irish, and Welsh forces.



A ROAD IN FLANDERS

Words are scarcely needed where the story of blasted, blighted desolation is so graphically told by the camera. Yet there is added force in the phrases written by an historian of the Flanders battle-ground, who describes one stretch of it as "a wilderness of tree-stumps, littered branches, barbed wire entanglements, craters and ponds."

German command showed alarm by trying to take a bridge-head on the east side of the Yser, at Lombartzyde near Nieuport. The attack, which was made on July 10, succeeded in destroying most of the bridges, shattering two British battalions and seizing the northern section of the bridge-head.

THE BEGINNING OF THE THIRD BATTLE OF YPRES.

For various reasons—among others, the retirement of the German lines under counter-battery work—the new advance did not begin until July 31. The whole front of attack, from a point north of Steenstraate south to the Lys river, measured more than fifteen miles. Of this, the part reserved for the

When, on the morning of July 31, at 3:50, the attack was begun which opened the Third Battle of Ypres, the excellence of the Allied barrage and the feebleness of the German barrage made for few casualties and good progress.

British and French on the north moved in accordance with their timetable through the first trenches and into the second system. Pilkem, Verlorenhoek, and Frezenberg were soon taken. Before ten o'clock, all the second objectives north of the Ypres-Roulers Railway were under control. Resistance was stronger and difficulties greater farther south, where the road to Menin crosses the Wyttschaete-Passchendaele ridge; this, being the

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key to the positions beyond, was guarded vigorously. Nevertheless, Sanctuary Wood was passed, and Stirling Castle, Hooze and the Bellewarde ridge captured. Then Glen-corse Wood and Inverness Copse presented sternest resistance. Before the end of the day, with the French in Bixchoote and the British in St. Julien, in spite of rain and heavy

Then came the rain, bringing days of disheartening delay during which the enemy found time to make ready for future opposition. As Sir Douglas Haig describes the conditions, "The weather had been threatening throughout the day; and had rendered the work of our aeroplanes very difficult from the commencement of the battle. During the afternoon, while fighting



ENGLISH WOUNDED GOING TO THE REAR

For help on the painful journey along the road to hospital care, some of these Tommies have the support of a German prisoner, who, though apparently unwounded, is not the most cheerful-looking member of the party.

counter-attacks, the line north of St. Julien had gone beyond the second system of defense; from St. Julien southward to Westhoek (which had not yet been entirely secured), the second system was held; and south of Westhoek, the first system had been taken. The crest of the ridge had been gained, and over six thousand prisoners had fallen to the British alone.

RAIN AGAIN INTERFERES WITH THE BRITISH ADVANCE.

The work of the Second Army had succeeded admirably, for they had added as their share of conquest La Basse Ville, Hollebeke and Klein Zillibeke, just north of the Ypres-Comines Canal.

was still in progress, rain began, and fell steadily all night. Thereafter, for four days the rain continued without cessation, and for several days afterwards the weather remained stormy and unsettled. The low-lying clayey soil, torn by shells and sodden with rain, turned to a succession of vast muddy pools. The valleys of the choked and overflowing streams were speedily transformed into long stretches of bog, impassable except by a few well-defined tracks, which became marks for the enemy's artillery. To leave these tracks was to risk death by drowning, and in the subsequent fighting on several occasions both men and pack animals were lost in this way."

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THE FAILURE TO ADVANCE CAUSES DEPRESSION AMONG THE MEN.

Besides a significant stroke in the suburbs of Lens, where on the fifteenth the Canadians captured Hill 70, the middle of August brought the second stage of the Ypres battle. It opened on the sixteenth. The French made a good advance which secured the strong bridge-head of Drei Grachten, and the British gained Langemarck with a part of the German third position, the Langemarck-Gheluvelt line (lying from Menin road along the second tier of ridges). Although there were distinct gains and the enemy lost heavily, so grievous were the losses of the British centre, owing to the weather and to the success of von Arnim's tactics (the frequency of the "pill-boxes" and the strength of the counter-attacks), that a wave of depression rolled among the British soldiers. They began to want confidence in their commanders. To check this serious state of affairs, General Haig revised his plans so as to give Sir Herbert Plumer, whose resourcefulness was well-known, command over the troublesome portion of the German front around the Menin road. This was done by extending the left of the Second Army farther north. General Plumer then made certain changes, especially in artillery tactics, that seemed advisable in order to cope more satisfactorily with the "elastic defense."

August had been the wettest August known for years, so that it took several weeks of better weather in early September to make the ground passable for another advance. This was undertaken, September 20, over an eight-mile front between the Ypres-Comines Canal and a point north of Langemarck, on a clearing morning after a night of rain. The Fifth Army did good work on its front, but the most important thing achieved was the

Second Army's capture of the high ground crossed by the Menin road, where the fighting had been so persistent and costly heretofore, and where the enemy had already put in sixteen divisions. This was, in fact, the southern entrance to the Passchendaele ridge. The attack, which had moved



THROUGH MARSHLANDS AND UP RIDGES TO POELCAPPELLE AND PASSCHENDAELE

with smoothness and precision in spite of its severity and difficulty, furnished an example of what might be accomplished by the enduring force of the British soldiers under thoughtful and patient leadership, even against the most severe opposition.

MUCH OF THE GROUND FAMILIAR TO THE BRITISH SOLDIER.

"Few struggles in the campaign were more desperate, or carried out on a more gruesome battlefield. The maze of quagmires, splintered woods, ruined husks of 'pill-boxes,' water-filled shell-holes, and foul creeks which made up the land on both sides of the

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Menin road was a sight which to the recollection of most men must seem like a fevered nightmare. It was the classic soil on which during the First Battle of Ypres the First and Second Divisions had stayed the German rush for the Channel. Then it had been a broken, but still recognizable and featured countryside; now the elements seemed to have blended with each other to make of it a limbo outside

counter-stroke, brought in five thousand prisoners and had attained all its objectives within a few hours, the British left capturing Poelcappelle and a New Zealand Division taking Gra-venstafel, the crest of a spur jutting out west of Passchendaele.

SIR DOUGLAS HAIG'S REASONS FOR CONTINUING TO FIGHT.

Although it was now clear that the Third Battle of Ypres had failed



MOVING UP THE GUNS IN SPITE OF ENGULFING MUD

In order to hammer the "pill-boxes" into silence and to cut them off from the reserves beyond, it became necessary to shorten the range of the British guns and move them closer to their targets. This was no easy task where there was more water than solid earth on the crater-pitted ground, which seemed to be made up of "strings of small ponds." Often corduroy tracks were laid over the boggy surface.

British Official

mortal experience and almost beyond human imagining. Only on some of the tortured hills of Verdun could a parallel be found."

Eleven counter-attacks along the newly won positions were a further test of British endurance. By a minor but successful attack on September 26, the ruins of Zonnebeke were secured.

Came October with downpours of rain that turned the battle area into "one irreclaimable bog" in which the conflict raged on. Of the five attacks launched during that month, the first, on October 4, intercepting a German

strategically, through an evil and untoward combination of storms and delays, Sir Douglas Haig chose to extend the time of the campaign until Passchendaele had been fully secured. Over two months had been necessary for the conquest of ground that he had hoped to gain in a fortnight so as to pass on to the more vital objectives of his programme. Yet, he would work through to the immediate objective. It was desirable, too, to draw on the enemy's growing reserves so as to relieve the French, attacking again on the Aisne heights.

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Each advance moved the lines closer up around Passchendaele itself, until on October 30, by some of the severest fighting of the whole battle, the Canadians drove their way into the very outskirts of the desired position. They formed there, however, so sharp a salient that a few days more were needed for improving the approach and supports. A little favorable dry weather came by way of help, and then, on November 6, Passchendaele fell before their sweeping advance. The dangerous salient of Ypres had been cut out of the front of battle. The Third Battle of Ypres had come to an end.

The record of gains after July 31 shows 24,065 prisoners taken, 74 guns, 941 machine guns and 138 trench-mortars. On the other hand, the price paid had been heavier than even at the Somme. Weather that prevented the air service from playing its rôle of observation and support in a region where the enemy had the natural advantages on his side, was in part accountable for this toll. Add to that the new method of defense devised by von Arnim, the stream of reserve forces from the Eastern Front, and always the mud—perhaps the worst on any battle-field ever—and there is glory for the heroes who worked up the ridges and gained them, though the greater success aimed at had to be foregone.

THE BATTLE OF CAMBRAI FOUGHT TO AID ITALY.

Before the year's end, another demand was to be made upon the British troops who had already borne enough to deserve a time of reprieve and rest. There was no possibility of another extensive undertaking at this time, but Sir Douglas Haig felt that the enemy must be engaged in order to keep him from sending greater numbers into Italy, where the southern ally was making a desperate stand at the Piave river after the Caporetto breakdown and retreat. England had sent as her best contribution General Plumer to Italy. Now she was about to continue her efforts on the Western Front partly for the sake of Italy's safety. There was, besides, a desire to offset

the discouraging experiences of the year by some heartening success that would lift the morale of the Allied peoples at home and on the field.

The attack upon Cambrai was so planned as to restore the element of surprise which had not been much employed in the more recent offensives. The importance and significance of the battle as it was fought lie in the success of the methods tried out by both sides, methods to be used conclusively in the campaigns of 1918. That of the Allies was the sharp, sudden "crash" attack with squadrons of tanks to cut the way through and co-ordinate with the infantry; that of the Teutons was the massing of hidden reserves just far enough back to be secretly brought forward and thrown into line where they had not been anticipated.

THE TANKS AT LAST COME INTO THEIR OWN.

The front chosen for assault was before Cambrai—a seven-mile line between the Amiens-Cambrai road and the Péronne-Cambrai road. The most formidable barrier in the way of advance was the Scheldt Canal which lay beside the Scheldt river. Cambrai was not definitely an objective, although it might be taken; but the ground to be attained was on the shoulders west and south of the town—Bourlon Wood and the heights east of the Scheldt Canal, where Crèvecœur was situated. From these points of vantage it would be possible to make the Germans uncomfortable in their positions beyond.

The ground was suitable for the use of tanks, which had been of no real avail on the broken, muddy flats of Flanders. But here, the surface had been little affected by battle and had no great natural inequalities. Since the size of the early tanks had been recognized as a disadvantage, providing targets for hostile guns, both French and English had been producing numbers of smaller machines, which are known as "whippets." At the Battle of Cambrai the tank had its first great triumph and was fully vindicated.

No long preliminary bombardments prepared the enemy for the coming

blow. The plan of General Haig was to break through with a sudden shock into the German lines, then send in cavalry to undo as far as possible the enemy's system before reinforcements could be gathered for a counter-movement. He hoped, by the surprise, to gain forty-eight hours before effective resistance could be organized. In case the venture moved rapidly toward success, French troops were to cooperate.

A single gun-shot, on the morning of November 20, gave the signal for a bombardment along a twenty-mile front, from Bullecourt south to the St. Quentin sector. At the same time, under cover of mist, smoke and gas, moved forward the tanks, which had ingeniously been kept from the view and knowledge of the enemy. The attacking army was the Third, under Sir Julian Byng, who, as we have noted, succeeded to the command of General Allenby when the latter was transferred to Palestine.

EXCELLENT PROGRESS MADE IN THE FIRST ONRUSH.

The first sweep forward was one of the most rapid and remarkable advances accomplished up to this time. One division, before evening, had reached Anneux, nearly halfway to Cambrai, and had carried the Siegfried Reserve Line on the way. Another had driven the enemy from the bank of the canal, pushed along the Siegfried Line and carried the German trench system west of the canal as far as the Bapaume road. At Flesquières, a single German artillery officer held up the advance by firing upon the tanks until he died. To the south, Marcoing was taken. Side by side with the infantry, where possible, the cavalry were at work, although at Masnières they were delayed by the Germans' having destroyed the bridge at this vital point.

Further gains were made on the twenty-first; yet the objectives were not attained. Brouillon Wood, thickly sown with machine guns, had not been entered, although the village of Fontaine-notre-Dame between Brouillon and Cambrai had fallen; Crèvecœur

and Rumilly had not been secured, nor had the final line been broken sufficiently to let the cavalry through. The salient as it now stood could not be held. Retreat or further advance must be chosen. Sir Douglas Haig, unmindful of the strong German reserves close at hand, decided to press forward upon the Brouillon heights. Furious fighting went on there for several days, while the positions on other parts of the line were improved. By the twenty-seventh, the gains reported were 10,500 prisoners and 142 guns, with 14,000 yards of the main Siegfried Line and 10,000 yards of the Reserve Line captured, and, all together, over sixty square miles of territory occupied. London, rejoicing, set her bells ringing for "Cambrai." Then came Ludendorff's reply. During the last week of November, sixteen fresh German divisions were introduced upon the field of battle where General von der Marwitz and his Second Army were situated in the area under attack. The order issued on the twenty-ninth stated, "We are now going to turn the (British) embryonic victory into defeat by an encircling counter-attack."

LUDENDORFF MAKES A SUCCESSFUL COUNTER-ATTACK.

Ludendorff's tactical surprise succeeded here as it had at Riga and at Caporetto; for the reserve troops had not been suspected, so well were they kept concealed. In carrying out his full intention he was not so successful, although twenty-four divisions, nearly all fresh, were used in the great counter-stroke. His object was to pinch the salient in from both sides and so cut off the centre, striking heavily there at the same time.

The blow fell on November 30 and crushed through on the south where the new line of the salient joined the old British line. There a division, exhausted in the Flanders fighting, had been placed while its new material should be in training. It was not strong enough to hold, and the enemy drove through taking Gonnelieu, Villers-Guislain and Gouzecourt. On the left and in the centre, the resistance was gallant and firm, so the Germans



FORT GARRY HORSE ON PARADE IN FRANCE

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FORT GARRY HORSE AFTER THE SUCCESSFUL CHARGE AT CAMBRAI

A squadron of these horsemen from the Canadian Cavalry Brigade crossed the canal by a temporary bridge near Masnières; drove forward about two miles into enemy territory; captured a German battery; attacked and overpowered a body of German infantry in a sunken road; then, misleading the enemy by stampeding those of their horses that had not fallen, fought on dismounted. By night they pushed back to the British lines, taking their wounded and their prisoners.

failed of the large success they had entered upon. But the losses on both sides were desperately heavy. Gouze-court was recovered by the British Guards Division which came forward to strengthen the wavering line; but the Bourlon position was too difficult a salient to keep. It was relinquished by a skilful withdrawal on December 4-7.

THE GERMANS GAIN BACK ONE PART OF THEIR LOSSES.

In the end, the Germans held seven square miles of the ground taken newly from the British, while the latter kept sixteen square miles of what they had seized from the Germans, including a seven-mile stretch of the Siegfried Line. In prisoners and casualties the results were about equal. It had been a brilliant feat of arms—"the most successful single surprise attack up to this time on the Western Front." Whether it should have been undertaken or whether Sir Douglas Haig should have closed it after the first dashing advance, are questions that may never be satisfactorily decided.

Viewed in the light of the operations of 1918, Cambrai is of especial interest. It offered a foretaste of the return to open fighting, and it gave warning (which, however, was not heeded) of the tactics which were to keep victory wavering in the balance for months, during the last year of the war.

RETROSPECT OF THE BRITISH FIGHTING FOR THE YEAR.

In looking back upon the British battles of 1917—Arras in April, the Messines Ridge in June, the Third Ypres from July to November, and Cambrai in November and early December—we get an impression of steady, arduous, exhausting fighting, well-planned for the most part, pushed with admirable spirit and endurance, yielding a gain of territory not extensive but important for its dominat-

ing character. It was brilliant fighting for successes that were not fully adequate to compensate for the struggle and the loss—not quite determinate. It was such a transition stage as can be reckoned rightly only in relation to what precedes and what follows. The process that had been the only successful method under earlier conditions—the war of attrition, with the limited objective—was no longer the best after the events of this year had shifted the conflict practically onto a single front, giving the enemy the advantage of almost unlimited reserves.

The actual achievement was not inconsiderable. Prisoners taken numbered 125,000. From the Oise to the North Sea the Allies had gained advantageous positions, through the capture of commanding ridges which had long overlooked their own lines. To Canada had been granted the distinction of regaining Vimy Ridge, Hill 70 (which had been a fateful fighting ground in the Battle of Loos in 1915), and Passchendaele.

Yet, there was much to offset these advantages. The levies for the British armies were not sufficient to keep the ranks filled with men that were trained and ready. And, under the pressure resulting from the Russian failure and the exhaustion due to fearful and unceasing effort under the worst kind of weather conditions, for which the British movements are said to have become "an accurate barometer," the strongest spirits sagged. The Italian set-back added to the depression.

That united consideration might be devoted to the grave problems troubling the Allies, in November at a conference of prime ministers and chiefs of staff from Great Britain, France and Italy, a Supreme War Council was established. By this council was appointed, then, the Inter-Allied General Staff consisting of General Foch, General Wilson and General Cadorna.

L. MARION LOCKHART



Australians in camp in Egypt

CHAPTER L

The Conquest of Palestine

THE BRITISH AND THEIR ARAB ALLIES WREST THE HOLY LAND FROM THE GRASP OF THE TURK

FROM Gallipoli Lord Kitchener sailed to Egypt, and the story is current that he summed up the situation on that front in early 1916 by his question: "Are you defending the Canal, or is the Canal defending you?"

It matters little whether the story is true or not. It was to the point. Was the Egyptian Expeditionary Force to continue to think and act locally, or was it to advance to a broader view in which the true value of the canal as an artery of empire and as a touchstone of British prestige in the East was justly appreciated? Events had shown that the problems of defending the canal and of defending Egypt were not identical. The Turk had crossed the desert once, he might do it again. He had placed casual and stray mines in the canal, he might accomplish greater things. How then could supplies and reinforcements be taken to Mesopotamia, relying almost entirely upon Britain because of the breakdown of the Indian Army machine?

THE MEANING OF THE CAMPAIGN UNDERTAKEN IN 1916.

Only a new line of defense for the canal east of the desert would remove the threat of strangle-hold upon the canal. Such a line could be gained only at the cost of a vigorous offensive. Upon this ground the Egyptian Expeditionary Force embarked in 1916

upon a campaign which was to lead it not only to the Holy City itself, but to a conquest extending from "Dan even unto Beersheba."

Different fronts have had their different needs at different periods. Desert campaigning recognized two great factors: water supply and transport. Without these nothing could be attempted, with them all might be accomplished. The Desert of Sinai had no water supplies save such amounts as were collected in Roman or Babylonian cisterns or in pools in the rocks in scattered spots where the winter rains were heavy. These could not be relied upon for large forces. Water in quantities sufficient for numbers of men and animals had to be run out into the sandy wastes from the sweet water canal which ran beside the waters of the ship canal.

THE WATERS OF THE NILE RUN INTO THE JORDAN.

Dwellers in Egypt are subject to a troublesome disease (*Bilharziosis*) developed from drinking the waters of the Nile, which contain a parasitic worm. In the new system this danger was fully guarded against. The water was passed under the ship canal in siphons, having filters attached, into reservoirs on the eastern bank. Here it was again filtered, chlorinated and pumped forward to its destination. There were

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in the water system, at its fullest development, seventeen pumping stations. At all important troop centres reservoirs were built which served the camel transport, bearing the water in advance of railhead and pipe line. Macbeth was told by the witches that he was safe "till Birnam Wood do come to Dunsinane," and in fancied security he plunged to ruin. The Arabs had a

Kitchener had demonstrated the need of a railroad in desert campaigning in the Sudan, and early in 1916 engineers began a standard gauge line upon the eastern bank of the Canal. Natives, formed into the Egyptian Labor Corps, under British officials did valuable work both upon railway and pipe line. "The standard gauge line running from Kantara to Palestine was the



SUEZ CANAL, THE CENTRAL ARTERY FOR FOUR CONTINENTS

The Canal, through which Asiatic, Australian and African elements passed to mingle in the service of the great system of British Empire, was a vitally essential organ. For its defense was developed the campaign in Palestine, which added a chapter of modern romance to the mediaeval and ancient stories of that old, old battle-ground.

saying that Palestine could not be conquered until a prophet turned the waters of the Nile into Jordan. Under General Allenby (whose very name the Bedouins thought presaged victory, *Allah*, God, and *Nebi*, a prophet) was brought to pass that which to the people of the desert had seemed the great impossibility.

Equally important was the question of transport. In Western Egypt experiments had established the value of motor transport, but in the Sinai district the sand was softer, and camel and horse transport across the roadless waste had been the only reliance.

keystone of strategic structure in Eastern Egypt. It was the backbone, the arteries, the very life-blood of the Army." Kantara was formerly a quarantine station with two houses and a mosque; with the development of the railroad its growth was amazing. There were great wharves where ocean-going vessels discharged their freight, a big filtration plant and pump-house and siphons, vast ordnance stores, hospitals and workshops.

CAMELS COME FROM EVERY PART OF THE WORLD.

Camel transport was thoroughly reorganized, too. The natives of



CAMPAIGNING IN THE DESERT

In the sandy desert one can hardly construct a shelter, still less a block-house; machine gunners had therefore to content themselves with the feeble protection afforded by heaped-up stones. Exposed to the pitiless rays of a sub-tropical sun the men served their guns with uncomplaining cheerfulness and fortitude through long hours under hostile fire.



AUSTRALIANS ON THE LINE OF FIRE

In the sand of the desert trench-digging was an arduous affair. To make a trench three feet wide a cut of fifteen feet was necessary. Then battens with canvas backs were put in and anchored, and the spaces behind refilled with excavated soil. A tiny rent in the canvas would allow the sand to filter through alarmingly; when the khamseen blew a whole series of trenches would be filled up in a night.

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Egypt were astounded at the numbers assembled: from every camel-market of the world, from India to Morocco, the camel came to Egypt. When the natives or French colonists were asked as to the camels' rations they laughed, for how could one tell how much a beast ate in pasturage? Yet the British soldier — like Robinson Crusoe — evolved a system of his own and, stable-fed, the camel thrived. Four kilos of straw and four kilos of millet

as Wadi Halfa. The first four months of 1916 were entirely given over to various preparations for a great advance. In addition to rail and pipe-laying, the defenses of the canal were strengthened, and to enlarge the area of safety, parties were sent out into the desert to drain off all water the enemy might use within a sixty-mile radius. Thus in April, from one big pool at Er Rigm, 5,000,000 gallons were taken, and by June not a bucketful of



LIGHT CAVALRY OF THE DESERT

Camels, like horses, are differently bred for different purposes. Those for burden-carrying are heavier and larger than those which are destined for riding purposes. The camels in the picture are meharis, fitted by their slender proportions to move with remarkable speed, capable, indeed, of a rate of over 100 miles in 24 hours. They come from northern and central Africa. Their riders, here, are Arab allies of the British.

or *dourrah* were apportioned daily, and in camps and bivouacs the camel was picketed like the horse. It is a tribute to German thoroughness to relate that manuals in Arabic on the care of camelry were picked up after the Battle of Romani and used thereafter by the Egyptian Army with great profit.

The position on the Eastern Egyptian Front had been made easier by the victories early in 1916 over the Grand Sheikh of the Senussi, but then the Sultan Ali Dinar rose in Darfur, and the Sirdar had to turn his attention to this open evil. To lighten his task Sir Archibald Murray sent troops to take over the Nile district as far south

water was available in a wide strip of desert.

THE TURKS ATTACK THE GANGS CONSTRUCTING THE RAILWAY.

The Turks descended upon the guards protecting the construction gangs on the railroad, and at the end of April three regiments of yeomanry and a half company of engineers suffered substantial losses when, under cover of dense fog, several thousand Turks in three columns attacked at Oghratina, Katia and Dueidar. But the railway went on and by July reached Romani. There in the third week the Turk attacked and a battle — the most serious in the campaign fought on Egyptian soil — ensued.

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It was the hot season when the thermometer registered 100-115° in the shade, and a man got sunstroke in a bell tent if he moved without his helmet. Both sides were wont to use this season for preparation rather than for fighting, and upon this the Turk had reckoned. His preparations had gone on secretly for months; equipment had been especially made in Germany.

von Kressenstein, the Turkish force numbered some 18,000 men. At midnight on August 3rd, the Turks attacked and fighting continued throughout the day. "Allah, finish Australia" the Turks shouted as they charged. Pivoting on the shore the British cavalry withdrew so as to entangle the enemy in difficult sand-dunes. When reinforcements came up a counter-



"THE BREAD LINE" IN THE EAST

A remarkable picture of the Camel Transport in Palestine laden with bags of bread ready for the men in the front lines. Each camel's burden though bulky was not so heavy as it looks, and the men learning from the native drivers quickly became experienced in making their loads.

His camel pack-saddles were the best in the country, his machine-gun and mountain-gun packs scientifically practical. To bring up 4-inch, 6-inch, even 8-inch howitzers he had evolved an ingenious road in the sand by cutting two trenches each a foot deep and eighteen inches wide which he filled in with brushwood and tough scrub and covered with sand, or, where the sand was too soft, with wide planks.

As they made evening reconnaissance over Bir el Abd, British airmen discovered this large force of the enemy within fifty miles of the canal. Under command of the German general Kress

attack was delivered, and by nightfall the enemy was in full retreat. He was not suffered to get off lightly, but for four days was driven before the cavalry. When pursuit halted it was found to have covered nineteen miles, and in its course to have captured 4,000 prisoners and a large quantity of stores. In addition; Turkish casualties amounted to 5,000, so that in all the enemy suffered fully fifty per cent wastage of his attacking force. The Battle of Romani marks the last attempt to attack the Suez Canal and Egypt. Henceforth, in the campaign the Turk was on the defensive.

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THE INTERRUPTED PROGRESS OF THE ADVANCE.

Throughout the autumn the railway pushed slowly on. As soon as it reached a suitable spot stores were collected and the front cleared. Then followed a pause for the army while the railroad was again advanced. Water was brought up in great tanks until the pipe-line could be laid, and where the front overshot the railhead the gap was bridged by camel transport. After the Battle of Romani, the Turks had consolidated a position at Bir-el-Mazar, twenty miles to the east. They were there attacked by the Desert Column operating under Sir Philip Chetwode and withdrew to El Arish. There was again a pause while the engineers toiled to bring up the railway. During the interval the Royal Flying Corps did much bombing work over the enemy's positions, and the cavalry was active. By December 20 the advance was ready again, but airmen discovered that the Turk had evacuated his lines without pausing to give battle. He was followed by a flying column and found in a strong position to the south at Magdhaba.

The British attack that followed was delivered entirely by mounted troops: the Australian Light Horse and New Zealand Mounted Rifles operated against right flank and rear, and the Imperial Camel Corps against the front. Mirage delayed the work of the horse artillery batteries, so that as the day wore on shortage of water became a serious menace to the continuance of the attack. Orders were given, therefore, to press the charge and by four o'clock the place was won. This time the Turk retreated to Rafa on the border of Syria, while pursuit halted until the Egyptian Labor Corps and the engineers could send forward supplies. In a fortnight all was ready again and Sir Philip Chetwode's Desert Column left El Arish on the evening of January 8, 1917, and at dawn on the 9th had surrounded the enemy. The action lasted ten hours, and mobility and tactical boldness carried the day. At last the desert had been conquered: the Promised Land was in sight.

THE BRITISH ON THE BORDERS OF THE PROMISED LAND.

Briefly, the positions of the contending forces at the end of February 1917 were: while the main Egyptian Expeditionary Force had reached El Arish, portions of the army had crossed into Palestine at Rafa and the cavalry had penetrated to Khan Tunas. The Turkish line defending Syria ran from Gaza to Beersheba, both places were strongly fortified. Dobell's first objective was Gaza—that point on the Jerusalem railway which had served as a base for the attacks upon Egypt. Like all border cities, Gaza has long legendary and historical associations. One of the five lordships of the Philistines, it was the scene of Samson's triumph when he carried off the city's "massy gate and bar" to the top of a neighboring hill, and of his humiliation when he worked as a slave at the mill among his enemies. In crusading days Gaza had witnessed the triumph of Frank and of Saracen. In this last war against the Turk the city was to be the site of three sanguinary battles, and of six months' trench warfare. Taken and retaken some forty or fifty times, well might its walls re-echo, "Happy is the city that has no history."

In preparation for the assault upon the fortress, at the end of March a large force was concentrated at Rafa and marched up secretly at night. The first objective was secured without serious opposition. Meanwhile from the north a cavalry screen had pierced into the town itself. But a sea-fog had cost two hours' precious daylight—a vital thing where water shortage limited the fighting to daylight. At this juncture, as the Turks received strong reinforcements, the British were given orders to retire, for they were strung out on a thin line investing the city and had no water for their horses, although they were within measurable distance of their goal. Thus for two days' battle they had nothing to show save considerable casualties.

THE SECOND ATTACK ON GAZA LIKEWISE UNSUCCESSFUL.

For three weeks both sides made preparations for renewing the struggle:

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the British were reinforced by some tanks and hoped to cover the 2,000 yards' open advance across the sandy plain under their screen and a strong artillery preparation, as well as enfilading fire from a flotilla at sea. The Turkish outposts of Wadi-Gaza were captured on the 17th of April without difficulty, and the public expected a victory as far-reaching in its effects in Palestine as had been that of Kut in Mesopotamia. But the Turks had been strongly reinforced and had in line five infantry divisions supported by cavalry and good artillery served by Austrian gunners. Furthermore, they had strengthened their intrenchments. The battle was hotly contested throughout the 19th but the British tanks were too few in number, and some of them caught fire, so that the infantry in frontal advance lost tragically as the enemy machine guns cut down swath after swath. Under cover of dark such as survived the hail of fire crept back and dug themselves in at Mansourah. Had the Turk counter-attacked, the whole force would have been at his mercy, but he contented himself merely with coming out of his trenches and exulting over the victory, and the British line stayed where it was.

Because the results did not correspond to the hopes of writers who had no understanding of the difficulties of the enterprise, and who underestimated the fighting value of the Turk, a violent stir followed in the British Press and Parliament. Sir Archibald Murray was recalled, and Sir Edmund Allenby appointed to succeed him.

GENERAL ALLENBY, THE NEW COMMANDER OF THE EGYPTIAN ARMY.

General Edmund H. H. Allenby was fifty-six years old when he succeeded to the command of the Third Army in Egypt. From his first commission in the Inniskilling Dragoons he had served in every war for the Empire. In the days of the retreat from Mons he had commanded the Expeditionary Cavalry Force with distinction. With his coming the Egyptian Expeditionary Force was reshaped. The whole force was organized into corps, and the

strength of the artillery and infantry considerably augmented. In this army all the Empire was represented except Canada. There were English, Scotch, Irish, and Welsh battalions, batteries and regiments. Every state in the Australian Commonwealth had regiments, as had also New Zealand, while the Maoris furnished a battalion. There was a brigade of South Africans,



GENERAL SIR HERBERT LAWRENCE

General Lawrence under Sir Archibald Murray was in Command of the land operations in Egypt during 1916, and played a distinguished part in repelling von Kressenstein's invasion during July and August. In January, 1918, he was appointed Chief of General Staff.

and from India many warlike races: Gurkas, Sikhs, Bikaners, and Punjabis. The tea-planters of Ceylon came to Egypt as a rifle corps, from Singapore and Hong-Kong a mountain battery.

The three corps into which Allenby organized the force were thus composed: The XXth Corps comprised the 10th (Irish), 53rd (Welsh), 60th (London), and 74th (Dismounted Yeomanry) Divisions. In the XXI Corps were included the 52nd (Scottish Lowland), 54th (East Anglian), and 75th (Wessex and Indian) Divisions. The Desert Corps was made up of the Australian Mounted Division, the Anzac Mounted



Copyright ILLUSTRATING THE TURKISH DEFENSES ON THE GAZA-BEERSHEBA LINE

Division and the Yeomanry Division. There was in addition a composite brigade of French and Italians — familiarly known as “Mixed Vermouth.”

GENERAL ALLENBY'S PLANS FOR THE CAMPAIGN.

When Allenby took over command at the end of June, 1917, he submitted a report on the military situation and outlined the necessary conditions in which an offensive operation might be undertaken in the autumn or winter of 1917. The enemy's line from Gaza to Beersheba, some thirty miles, was a strong one. “Gaza,” he stated, “had been made into a strong modern fortress, heavily intrenched and wired,

offering every facility for protracted defense.” The remainder of the enemy's line consisted of a series of strong groups of works. These groups were generally from 1,500 to 2,000 yards apart, except that the distance from the Hareira group to Beersheba was about four and a half miles. Lateral communications were good, and any threatened point of the line could be very quickly reinforced.

Such were the positions. Allenby's plan was to deliver a decisive blow against the enemy's left flank where his line bent back at Hareira and Sheria. First, however, it was essential to clear away the isolated position of



AGRICULTURE IN PALESTINE

Somewhat primitive methods for cultivating the soil exist in Palestine where changes, as in all eastern countries, come slowly. The Arab does not drive his yoked ox and ass by means of reins but with his long pole taps horns or ears for direction and uses his voice for checking or starting.

Henry Ruschin.



WITH THE BRITISH EXPEDITIONARY FORCE

Shortage of water was the primary difficulty in the Palestine Campaign, but the contour of the country was much broken up by dried-up water courses or *Wadis* whose beds on the edges of the desert among the early slopes of the hills presented great obstacles to wheeled transport. Engineers are shown making a practicable crossing over such a gully, which after rains would be filled with a swift spate.

Beersheba where there — and there only — was a good water supply, and at the same time by an operation against Gaza keep the enemy in doubt as to the real object of attack. Allenby hoped in turning the Turkish left flank to allow room for his own mounted troops, in which he was superior, to have ground to manoeuvre. The difficulties were formidable because there was no water except at Beersheba until Hareira and Sheria were captured; and there were no good roads for motor transport. To meet this last difficulty 30,000 camels (the whole of the strength available for the Expeditionary Army) were allotted to the Eastern force to enable it to be kept supplied with food, water and ammunition fifteen miles in advance of railhead, while a branch line from Gamli towards Beersheba was rapidly put under construction.

THE FAMOUS OLD TOWN OF BEERSHEBA IS TAKEN.

During the hot weather and until October vigorous preparations were made by both sides. October 31 was fixed for the attack on Beersheba, and the eastern force under General Chetwode entrusted with its operation. Four days earlier the bombardment of the Gaza defenses opened, and monitors and warships joined in with the bombardment on the 30th. To keep the attack a surprise, units detailed for attacking Beersheba from south and southwest made a night march and were in position by dawn of the 31st. To bring their guns within range it was necessary first to capture the enemy's advanced works at Hill 1,070, two miles southwest of the town. Then wire-cutting proceeded and the final assault ordered for 12:15 P.M. had by 7 P.M. attained all its objectives. Meanwhile, mounted troops moved out and by a night ride of thirty-five miles got into the hills five miles to the east of Beersheba. There was fighting on the tangled slopes until late afternoon. Thence to the city the approach was over an open plain and progress was slow. At 7 P.M. the Australian Light Horse, using their fixed bayonets as lances against the Turks, rode straight

at the town, galloping over two deep trenches and sweeping forward in irresistible charge. The enemy was completely taken by surprise and lost heavily in prisoners and guns.

Thus with Beersheba fallen and the Turkish left flank exposed, the date of the main attack upon Gaza which would draw off further enemy reserves could be fixed. On November 2 the assault was begun by the western force. To the west the Turkish defenses were flanked by Umbrella Hill, and General Bulfin, after capturing this, planned to take the hostile works on a front of 6,000 yards from the hill to Sheik Hasan. The approach was difficult and necessitated an advance in the open over sand-dunes which rose in places to one hundred and fifty feet. The attack was timed before dawn because of the distance to be covered before reaching the enemy's position: it was successful, reached all its objectives and captured four hundred and fifty prisoners besides inflicting heavy casualties. The whole Gaza position was now distinctly threatened.

THE TURKS ATTEMPT TO RELIEVE GAZA BY AN ATTACK ELSEWHERE.

Meanwhile on the right mounted troops had pushed into the difficult waterless hill country north of Beersheba in order to secure the flank of the attack on Sheria, and another body had pushed north along the Hebron road to seize the water supply at Dhaheriya. At this point, taking a gambler's chance, the Turk risked all his available reserves in an effort to entangle Allenby's forces in the difficult country north of Beersheba and so cause the British Commander to make alterations in his original offensive plan. Had he succeeded in his design of drawing considerable forces against him, the flank attack on the Hareira-Sheria positions might have failed, and the possession of Beersheba then would have been nothing but an incubus of the most inconvenient kind.

With rare good judgment Allenby over-rode this diversion, detaching enough troops to draw in and exhaust the enemy reserves, but at the same time pushing forward his own attack



TANK AMONG THE PALM TREES

In the second battle of Gaza tanks, brought up by rail from Egypt, were used but there were not enough of them to be effective. The advance was in the open across 3000 yards of sand, progress was slow, and several of the tanks were hit by shells and burned out.

British Official



THE IMPERIAL CAMEL CORPS

The Imperial Camel Corps consisted not only of fighting units but of draught and transport detachments as well. Attached for the most part to the Desert Column of the Egyptian Expeditionary Army they were nevertheless a mobile force swung where the need was greatest. In the battle at Maghaba they first co-operated with the Anzacs and thereafter the association was one of mutual esteem. Napoleon instituted a similar body when in Egypt.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

on the Sheria defenses at Kauwukah and Rushdi on the 6th. "This attack was a fine performance, the troops advancing eight or nine miles during the day and capturing a series of very strong works covering a front of about seven miles, the greater part of which had been held and strengthened by the enemy for over six months." The

ed themselves on the north bank in face of considerable opposition from the Turkish rearguard. By the morning of the 8th the retreat was general all along the line, and all the original Turkish positions were in British hands. The enemy opposite the right flank had retreated into the Judean Hills. Later he reorganized and descended



AUSTRALIAN MILITARY MOTOR CYCLISTS IN PALESTINE

Crossing the desert of Sinai there was little use for the motor bicycle because the sand was too soft in many places. Roads were constructed by laying down wire-netting which formed some sort of support for wheeled transport. In Palestine, however, roads were numerous though poor, especially in the coastal plain. Red Cross

Turks fell back and mounted troops took up the pursuit and pushed on to occupy Huj and Jemammeh.

THE TURKS EVACUATE GAZA AND RETIRE SULLENLY.

On the left the bombardment of Gaza still continued, and an attack was ordered for the night of the 6th-7th. Little resistance was offered and when patrols were pushed forward the enemy was found to have evacuated the city, leaving strong rearguards at Beit-Hanun and Attawinah, who fired on the city as the British entered it. Thus skilfully had Kress von Kressenstein evaded another battle. Cavalry advanced to Wadi el Hesi and establish-

to the plain on the flank of the pursuing force to create a diversion.

Pursuit followed and was in *échelon* with the left flank advanced, for further east the enemy rearguard clung to Beit Hanun and Attawinah all through the 7th, and thus it was that Jaffa fell some weeks before the capture of Jerusalem was attempted. No considerable body of the enemy was cut off for the rearguards fought obstinately. When Cavalry and Royal Flying Corps reported that the retreat was disorganized, the infantry pressed forward. All arms suffered much from thirst, for the *khamseen* was blowing and the hot air was heavily

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR



LAST STAGES IN ALLENBY'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST JERUSALEM

laden with sand. Allenby was pushing on to reach Junction Station so that communications with Jerusalem might be cut.

THE TURKS NOW ATTEMPT TO RESIST THE FORWARD MOVEMENT.

At this juncture the enemy descended from the Judean Hills in order to take pressure off his main force retreating along the coastal plain, but he was

known to be short of transport and munitions and generally disorganized, and so his threat against the British right could be practically disregarded and in no way allowed to hold up the pursuit. November 9, 10 and 11 were days of minor engagements, great hardships, great activity. By the 12th it was discovered that the coastal army was making a final effort south of



THE DAMASCUS GATE, JERUSALEM

Junction Station to arrest the forward movement. Strung out for twenty miles on a line from El Kubeibeh to Beit Jibrin, von Kressenstein had stationed a force of about 20,000 rifles.

Allenby's report continues: "Arrangements were made to attack on the 13th. The country over which the attack took place is open and rolling, dotted with small villages, surrounded by mud walls, with plantations of trees outside the walls. The most prominent feature is the line of heights on which are the villages of Katrah and El Mughar.... This line forms a very strong position, and it was here that the enemy made his most determined resistance against the turning movement directed against his right flank. The capture of this position by the 52nd (Lowland) Division, assisted by a most dashing charge of mounted troops, who galloped across the plain under heavy fire and turned the enemy's position from the north, was a fine feat of arms..... After this the enemy resistance weakened, and by the evening his forces were retiring east and north."

THE CAPTURE OF JUNCTION STATION BREAKS THE TURKISH ARMY IN TWO.

Infantry captured Junction Station on the morning of the 14th, and the enemy's force, broken into two separate parts, retired east and north respectively. In fifteen days the British infantry had covered over forty miles and the cavalry sixty miles, had driven the enemy from positions which he had held for six months, and inflicted losses upon him amounting to two-thirds of his effectives. In addition, over 9,000 prisoners, a large number of guns, and quantities of munitions had been captured. It was necessary still to clear up the British left flank and give it a strong pivot to swing round upon before proceeding against Jerusalem, accordingly Ramah and Lydda were occupied and patrols pushed forward towards Jaffa which fell without further opposition on the 16th.

The position was now this: by the capture of Junction Station the enemy's force had been cut in two and had retired east upon Jerusalem and north along the plain. The shortest route by which they could unite was along the one good road, the Jerusalem-

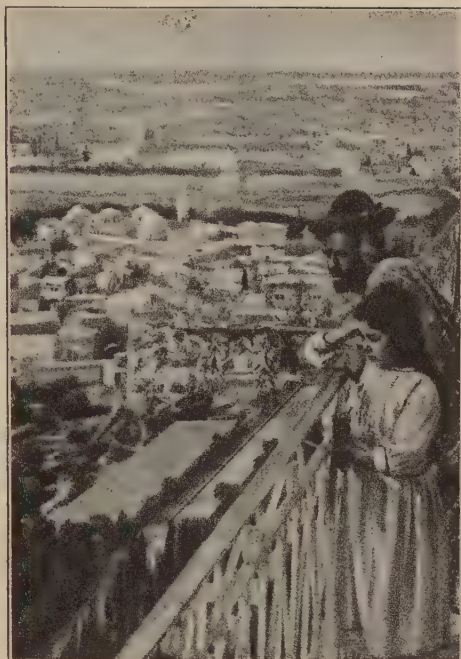


TOWER OF DAVID AND CITY WALL

Nablus (Shechem) highway running along the crest of the Judean range north of the Holy City. Although Jerusalem could still obtain supplies from the east by Amman on the Hedjaz Railway, yet aeroplane reconnaissance at this time discovered that it was probably the enemy's intention to evacuate the city and fall back upon Nablus to reorganize. But before Allenby could advance further he had to wait railway construction and the landing of stores along the coast.

THE TURKS HOLD A COUNCIL OF WAR IN JERUSALEM.

At this juncture the Turks held council of war in Jerusalem. To it came hurriedly Enver Pasha from Constantinople and Djemal Pasha from Damascus (the latter only narrowly escaped death for his train was blown up by Arabs). That the enemy appreciated the gravity of the crisis was evident. Next came General von Falkenhayn from headquarters at Aleppo, promising reinforcements. The Germans were much more panicky than the Turks and started to evacuate the city but the Governor of Jerusalem,

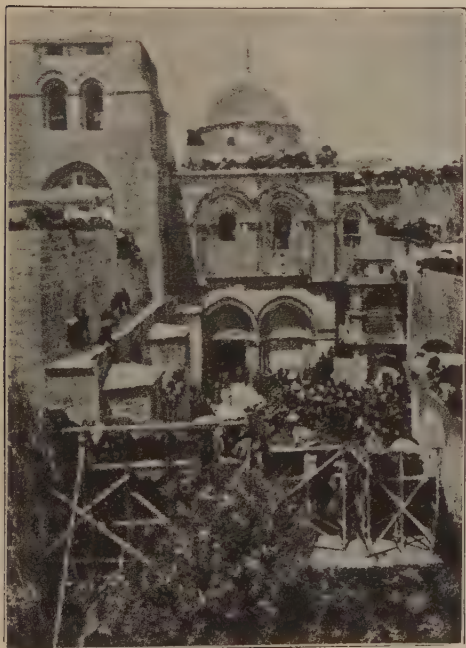


JERUSALEM FROM THE MOUNT OF OLIVES

Izzet Bey, began vigorous defense measures which shamed the Teutons. Ali Fuad Pasha at the head of the military forces at once deported the Zionists and others suspected of Allied leanings to Nablus, as well as all essential stores.

Southern Palestine is divided into parallel strips of alternate depression and elevation, running north and south. The region next the Mediterranean Sea consists of sand-dunes and then of coastal plain to an average width of fifteen miles. To the east rises the range of mountains on which stands Jerusalem, the hills of Samaria and Judea, some 3,000 feet above the sea. These mountains drop steeply to the Valley of Jordan and the Dead Sea, and beyond the depression tower the abrupt hills of Moab. Finally to the east again stretches waterless desert.

So far the Expeditionary Force had moved north chiefly on the coastal belt and among the early slopes of the hills. Now it was to turn east and penetrate the intricate passes of Judea which have been fatal to so many invading armies. From the main ridge running north and south, spurs, as from



CHURCH OF THE HOLY SEPULCHRE

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the backbone of a fish, run east and west to the plains. The aspect of these hills is steep, bare and stony for the most part, and only one good road, the Jaffa-Jerusalem road, penetrates from east to west. All the other roads are mere tracks, unpractical for wheeled transport, and the water supply throughout is scanty.

THE EXPEDITIONARY FORCE TURNS FROM THE SEA TO THE HILLS.

The British Commander's object was to isolate the Turkish Jerusalem Army from the northern army by cutting the Nablus road. He could not afford to delay his attack upon the Judean passes and thus allow Turkish defense to stiffen in these already formidable valleys; so he pushed forward in rapid advance upon the village of Bireh which commanded the highway, and which as a point of attack would serve to keep fighting away from the vicinity of the Holy City. The transition from desert to mountain warfare was not easy for the troops, though if their equipment had been fitting it would have seemed familiar enough to the Indian frontiersmen. As it was, their kit was too heavy, their mountain guns too few, the physical effort of conquering the heights toil enough without the sharp fighting by which progress was made from height to height. Because of their greater mobility the Yeomanry advanced through the hills directly upon Bireh, leaving the highway to the infantry who by November 19 captured the defile to Saris, fiercely defended by hostile rearguards and a position of great natural strength.

Turkish resistance was stiffening as von Falkenhayn's reinforcements came into line and on the 20th the Yeomanry who had reached to within 4 miles of the highway were checked by strong opposition at Betunia, and had to fall back upon Upper Beth-Horon. The infantry captured Enab at the point of the bayonet and a strong position known as the Neby Samwil Ridge. Here on the 21st advance stayed, for fierce counter-attacks developed. Though the objective on the Nablus road had not been reached, excellent positions

had been won from which the final attack could be prepared and delivered with good prospects of success. Some of the bitterest local fighting followed on Neby Samwil and north of Jaffa for both sides felt the crisis. Bright moonlight aided the Turkish snipers and they picked off the outposts with disconcerting promptness. At one point where the Ghurkas ran short of ammunition they hurled rocks and boulders down upon their foes.

THE TURKS GIVE UP THE HOLY CITY WITHOUT FIGHTING.

By December 4 all ranks were full; existing roads and tracks had been improved and new ones constructed so that heavy artillery, munitions and supplies had been brought up, and the water facilities developed. The enemy's lines protecting Jerusalem from north and north-west lay on a front five miles from the city, but he had machine guns and artillery in the outskirts of the city itself. Besides the road north to Nablus, a second good highway ran to Jericho on the east, and the general idea of the assault upon the city was simultaneous pressure on these two roads by three divisions.

The date for the attack was fixed as December 8. On the 7th the weather broke and rain for three days was almost continuous. Airmen could not work in the mists that veiled the hills, mechanical transport and camels halted on the mud-logged roads. Nevertheless, on the night of 7th-8th, detachments crept down the mountain side, crossed the deep *wadi* bed at the bottom in silence and clambered up the opposite ridge, where they stormed the main Turkish line before daylight, and thus captured the western defenses of Jerusalem. The 74th Division swung forward against the Turkish positions defending the Nablus road, but during the night the Turks had withdrawn, and the 74th and part of the 60th occupied positions northwest of Jerusalem. The 53rd was detailed to clear the Mount of Olives and they drove the enemy east and occupied the road to Jericho. These operations isolated Jerusalem and at about noon on the 9th of December the enemy



VICTIMS OF TURKISH MISGOVERNMENT

These children have walked all the way in the hot sun from Es Salt beyond Jordan to Jerusalem. They are waiting with their parents, 1,500 in all, in the court yard of the St. James Monastery in Mount Sion, to be taken to the permanent camp for refugees at Port Said.



REFUGEES FROM BEYOND JORDAN

These Armenians from Kerak, southeast of the Dead Sea, are coming into Jerusalem through the Garden of Gethsemane, made forever memorable by the events recorded in the Gospels. Behind them lies the Jericho-Jerusalem road along which they fled. Early in 1917 the Hedjaz Arabs captured the region south and east of the Dead Sea of which Kerak is the capital.

Pictures by courtesy of Red Cross Magazine



ALLENBY ENTERING BY JAFFA GATE

sent out a *parlementaire* and surrendered the city.

GENERAL ALLENBY ENTERS JERUSALEM WITHOUT CEREMONY.

On the 11th General Allenby entered the city by the Jaffa Gate. He came on foot and left on foot and no pageantry profaned the solemnity of the occasion. A proclamation announcing that order would be maintained in all the hallowed sites of the three great religions which

were to be guarded and preserved, and no impediment to be placed in the way of worshippers therein, was read in English, French, Italian and Arabic from the parapet of the citadel below the Tower of David. When this was done General Allenby went to the small space behind the citadel, where the chief notables and ecclesiastics of the different communities that remained were presented to him. After

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this brief ceremony the general left the City of David by the Jaffa Gate. No stronghold has been so repeatedly sacked and rebuilt. Jerusalem stands for ruin and renewal, for death and rebirth. It has survived attacks from the Egyptians, Babylonians, Assyrians and Arabians, the Pharaohs, Cæsars, Caliphs, the Selucidæ, the Abassids, the Seljuks, — yet it has remained a monument of loneliness.

rose high. Early in November, as Allenby's troops pressed into the Judean Hills, Mr. Balfour, acting for the British Government, declared that they viewed "with favor the establishment of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavors to facilitate the achievement of their object." With great aspirations and some grounds for hope the Zionists looked forward to the final ending of



BRIDGE BUILT OVER THE JORDAN

At El Ghoraniyeh the British, with the assistance of the Egyptian Labor Corps, built a pontoon bridge across the Jordan in order that they might capture Jericho and attack the Hedjaz railway, the main line of Turkish communications. In the picture shown above the bridge is being tested for traffic.

THE CITY DEAR TO BOTH JEW AND CHRISTIAN.

No triumph in the annals of the war meant more to the greatly differing peoples who made up the Allies, united against the Turk in the bond of a common Christianity that was stronger and more enduring than the bond of mutual self-interest. The city so nearly associated with the Founder of their faith, whose streets He had trod, whose courts He had viewed, had — save for rare intervals — been in the hands of unbelievers for well-nigh a thousand years. For the Jews the city of Zion meant even more. Seat of their ancient temples and source of much inspiration, its capture seemed to herald a new era in the history of their race, and with the dispossession of the Turk their hopes

the struggle, and the solution of their problems.

The Allied press acclaimed the triumph of General Allenby but the Germans declared that Jerusalem had no military value. Yet in less than three weeks (December 26-27) the Turks made fierce counter-attacks to regain it. They failed, and instead the British lines were pushed north and the security of the city assured, while their left wing pushed back the Turk from Jaffa. Eastwards the enemy still held Jericho but this was captured (February 21), and thus the eastern flank made safe. The Commander-in-Chief was unable because of transport and supply difficulties to continue his operations to the north, and undertook instead to co-operate with the

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Arabs in attacks on the enemy's chief remaining line of communication—the Hedjaz Railway east of the Jordan. A quick glance at the war record of Allenby's Arabian Allies will be in order at this juncture.

THE HEDJAZ REVOLT AGAINST THE SULTAN.

The nomadic Arab tribes of Mesopotamia were neither pro-Ally nor pro-

was as lightly acknowledged. Selim the Grim conquered Egypt in 1517, Damascus and Jerusalem had already fallen to him, and the Sherif of Mecca acknowledged him therefore as Caliph and lord of the Hedjaz. Turkish rule in the Hedjaz in later times became shadowy, resting only upon subsidies to native chiefs and supported by garrisons of soldiers, but the guardian-



THE TURKISH RETURN TO THE HOLY CITY

A picture of Turkish prisoners, recently captured by the British forces, being marched through the streets of Jerusalem. Note the signposts in English for the direction of the victorious troops. From the "Post Office" British officers are watching the columns defile. Buildings are intact because the Commander was careful not to fire upon the Holy City. British Official.

German: they were unashamedly pro-winner. Stragglers from either side became their victims, while to the victor in an engagement they gave local support. Nominally, the Turk was their lord and co-religionist who had invoked their aid in a *ji*had: actually he was the alien and wasteful owner of their soil, who, however, when successful must be supported. Thus, to choose typical incidents, Turkish victory at Kut and failure before Bagdad made a wide disparity in the strength of their Arab contingents.

In Arabia, another part of their empire, the authority of Constantinople

ship of the Holy Places was important to Turkey as a foundation of prestige in the Mahommedan world. With true foresight Sultan Abdul Hamid between 1901 and 1908 built the so-called "Pilgrims' Railway" east of the Jordan between Damascus and Medina, apparently to render the annual pilgrimage to the Holy Places more convenient—in reality to strengthen the Turkish grasp upon Hedjaz and Asir and Yemen to the south. When to Sultan Abdul Hamid succeeded the Committee of Union and Progress and a policy of pro-Germanism, the subject races of the empire grew

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MAP ILLUSTRATING THE ADVANCE OF THE EGYPTIAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE

restless. A *jihad* was proclaimed throughout the Moslem world when Turkey joined the Teutonic Alliance, but many of the faithful found it difficult to reconcile the acts of Talaat Bey, Enver Pasha and Djemal with

Islamism. Thus early in 1916 Djemal Pasha arrested and executed many leading notables in Damascus and Enver Pasha on a visit to Mecca shocked the orthodox by his undisguised atheism and callousness.

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OTHER CAUSES OF UNREST AMONG THE ARABS

There were other causes of unrest among the Arabs. Racial feeling ran strongly and they despised a conqueror less intellectual than themselves. The Grand Sherif of Mecca commanded considerable respect by virtue of his office as custodian of the Holy Places and himself valued the

tempt and profanation of the Sacred House. But we are determined not to leave our religions and national rights as a plaything in the hands of the Union and Progress Party." If the Arabs once again become the leaders of the Mohammedans throughout the world this proclamation will have considerable historic interest.

In the military operations that



AUSTRALIAN LIGHT HORSE ENTERING DAMASCUS

October 1, 1918, the Australians entered Damascus "a rose-red city half as old as Time." They had taken the route to the north of the Dead Sea and had met serious opposition both at the Jordan and El Kuneitrah. To the east of Jordan, British Cavalry and an Arab column advanced upon Damascus.

advantages of western civilization. In June, 1916, he issued a proclamation to the Moslem world forswearing his allegiance to the Turk on religious grounds. After detailing the offenses of the Committee of Union and Progress the document proceeds: "We have sufficient proof of how they regard the religion and the Arab people in the fact that they shelled the Ancient House... firing two shells at it from their big guns when the country rose to demand its independence.... We have the whole Mohammedan world from East to West to pass judgment on this con-

followed the Hedjaz Arabs were handicapped because they were fighting against highly disciplined troops equipped with the scientific appliances of modern warfare. Nevertheless, they can claim in two years' warfare not only to have cleared the Turks from south and central Hedjaz (a territory somewhat larger than Great Britain) and from 800 miles of the Red Sea coast, but also to have captured, killed or immobilized 40,000 of the finest Turkish troops. In the final stage of the advance upon Damascus they gave valuable assistance on the east of Jordan.



DAMASCUS, THE DAY AFTER CAPTURE

Perhaps one of the oldest cities in the world, Damascus has a very heterogeneous population, variously estimated as ranging between 160,000 and 350,000. Of the many Jew, Christian, and Moslem places of worship, the last predominate with a total of over two hundred. The city was once a famous seat of learning and contained numerous schools in which grammar, theology, and jurisprudence were taught.

British Official.



A STREET SCENE IN DAMASCUS

Seen from a distance Damascus is impressive but on closer acquaintance, like most Oriental cities, somewhat disappointing. With the exception of the street called "Straight" all its streets are narrow, ill-paved and crooked. Its bazaars though numerous and well-kept are but poorly stocked and indifferently attended. The chief manufactures are silver and gold ornaments, interwoven fabrics, brass and copper work and inlaid furniture. Caravans from Aleppo visit the city every month.

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THE ARABS FREE HEDJAZ AND ADVANCE TO THE DEAD SEA.

After the proclamation, the Emir's troops mastered the Turkish garrisons in Mecca and its sea-port Jeddah. In September Taif, the Turkish headquarters, surrendered and with the city Ghaleb Pasha, Vali and Commander-in-

him first of all to seize command of all roads and tracks leading from Judea into the Jordan Valley so as to prevent reinforcements reaching the Turks on the east of the river. From March 8-12 severe fighting took place on the Jerusalem-Nablus and Jericho-Beisan roads. Though the Turks were driven off they continued to use the roads farther north. The way was, however, open for attacks on the Hedjaz railway and, March 21, Allenby forced the crossing of the Jordan and raided Amman. The attack drew in the Turkish reserves but was otherwise only moderately successful, although Feisal, seizing the opportunity, cut the line north and south of Ma'an and held possession of the station itself for a brief interval. A second trans-Jordanic raid was planned and advance began April 30, but the Arab tribe which had promised help did not arrive and the British troops had to retire.

ALLENBY FORCED TO SEND TROOPS TO THE WESTERN FRONT.

The situation on the Western Front now cast its shadow over the fortunes of the Egyptian Army. Allenby was forced to send a large part of his army to Europe and in reorganizing filled up his corps largely with untried Indian troops. No offensive was possible under such conditions, and local fighting became the rule in the hot months.

In September before the heavy autumn rains began the British again resumed the offensive. The Turkish line at this time lay on a front from Jaffa through the hills of Ephraim to a front half way between Nablus and Jerusalem, thence on to Jordan and down its eastern bank to the Dead Sea. Menacing their left flank, though at some distance from it, were the Hedjaz Arabs under Feisal at Ma'an. From west to east the Turks had the VII and VIII Armies to the right (west) of



GENERAL SIR EDMUND H. H. ALLENBY, K.C.B.

Commanding the Cavalry Expeditionary Force at the beginning of the war. In April, 1915, he succeeded Sir Herbert Plumer as commander of the Fifth Corps: in June, 1917, he was appointed to command the Egyptian Expeditionary Force.

chief. By the end of the year Osmanli authority in Hedjaz was confined to Medina and a narrow strip of country on either side of the railway. In November the Emir Hussein assumed the title of King of the Hedjaz. Early in 1917 the Arabs had advanced from the south and were based on Akaba on the Dead Sea and under the Emir Feisal (Hussein's eldest son) were opposed to a Turkish army somewhat their superior in strength.

In order for Allenby to make raids across the Jordan it was necessary for

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

Jordan and the IV Army on the left (east).

ALLENBY ATTEMPTS TO DESTROY THE TURKISH ARMIES.

At 4:30 A.M. on September 19 the main attack began. The infantry in rapid advance overran the enemy defenses and penetrated to a depth of five miles. Then the cavalry galloped through the broken lines and by midday had covered nineteen miles. Near the sea the Naval Flotilla hastened the retreat by shelling the coast roads. In the hill country the advancing right wing met some stiff resistance, but overcame it by the evening of the 20th. The cavalry riding north took Nazareth (whence Liman von Sanders, commander of the Turkish VII and VIII Armies between them and no escape was possible save south-east to the Jordan crossing at Jisr ed Damieh. By the 24th the two armies had fallen into British hands. Allenby lost no time in pressing his advantage. Only the IV Army on the east of Jordan remained. It did not begin its retreat until the fourth day of battle, then Amman fell (25th September), and Feisal pressed the Turks back north along the railway. Damascus was the next step.

Chauvel and the Desert Mounted Column advanced in two groups to the north and south of the Sea of Galilee. The Australians taking the northern route occupied Tiberias and pushed on to a fiercely contested passage of the Jordan and formidable resistance at El Kuneitrah. Nevertheless by the 30th they were only thirty miles south-west of Damascus. The southern column gained touch at Er Remte with

the Arabs, on the 31st Feisal captured Deraa on the railway, and the 4th Cavalry Division and Arabs pushed on together, and at 6 A.M. October 1 entered Damascus. In twelve days the Egyptian Expeditionary Force



Copyright THE FULL EXTENT OF ALLENBY'S CONQUESTS

had disposed of three armies, from which they had captured 60,000 prisoners and between 300-400 guns. Only a mob of perhaps 17,000 Turks and Germans fleeing north remained of the defenders of the Syrian front.

THE TURKISH FORCES IN SYRIA WIPED OUT.

Allenby, however, could not rest upon his laurels: he needed a port and railway running in from the sea-



INDIANS IN CAPTIVITY IN GERMANY

The lot of Allied prisoners was never an enviable one, and in the case of the Indians its hardships were further aggravated by the difficulties of obtaining food that kept inviolate their rules of caste, and by the inclemencies of the northern European winter bearing hardly upon men accustomed to subtropical heat. Picture, H. Ruschin

coast to keep up his supplies, and shortly after (Oct. 6-8) the Rayak-Beirut line fell into his hands. The rest was a triumphal progress: Balbek fell on the 11th, Homs and Tripoli on the 13th. The last stage was Aleppo: the 5th Cavalry Division and armored cars went forward and after a few slight brushes with the enemy reached the place on the 25th where they were joined by an Arab contingent and occupied it on the 26th. Since September 19, the Allied front had advanced 300 miles north; the

Turkish Armies in Syria had been wiped out.

The time was ripe for Marshall to move in Mesopotamia. One column pushed up the Tigris, drove back a Turkish army of 7,000 men, cut off its retreat and forced its surrender (October 30). A second force advanced up the Kifri Kirkuk-Keupri road until Mosul was within its reach. When Marshall entered the city November 3, there was no need for fighting: Turkey like Bulgaria had surrendered.

MURIEL BRAY



Exercising newly arrived men at Yaphank

CHAPTER LI

Training the Citizen Army

THE AMERICAN INFANTRY COMBAT DIVISION AND ITS TRAINING FOR THE WORLD WAR

BY MAJOR-GENERAL LEONARD WOOD, U.S.A.

Commanding 89th and 10th Divisions

AN American Division is a self-contained unit made up of all necessary arms and services, and complete in itself with every requirement for independent action incident to its ordinary operations. It is the basis of organization for a mobile army.

INTENSIVE TRAINING OF THE AMERICAN INFANTRY COMBAT DIVISION.

In answer to the request of the Entente for reinforcements to meet the great German Drive of 1918, special intensive training of divisional units was begun.

In the training of a division one is confronted with the problem of not only imparting military information and training, but also with that of building up an organization spirit, an organization morale, without which no amount of military training will make a first-class fighting organization.

For a military organization to be effective, it must be a living, human organization. It must have not only a body but a soul, a spirit, a character and individuality. Unless these are developed the training has not been successful. Everything must be done not only to build up the military body, or organization, but to put into it a spirit and a soul. This means that its

men must be kept together as much as possible. When men are taken from a division because of wounds or sickness, every effort must be made to return them to their division. Nothing demoralizes men more quickly or completely than the disregard of this basic principle. Whenever this principle has been disregarded, morale has been impaired and the fighting efficiency of the division lowered.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES WHICH MUST BE OBSERVED IN TRAINING.

Everything possible must be done to convince the men of the worthiness of the cause for which they are fighting, to build up a feeling of service and sacrifice and an appreciation of the nobility of service in a good cause; to point out that they are offering their lives that others may live and that their government and its institutions may endure.

They must be taught respect for their officers and be made to understand that the salute is an indication not only of discipline, but also a mark of recognition between members of the great Brotherhood of Men at Arms. Men must be taught to look upon the uniform as a symbol of their country, and as such to honor it and to keep it clean by keeping it out of places of ill-repute.

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THE TRAINING AND ATTITUDE OF THE JUNIOR OFFICERS.

In their training the officers must be impressed with the idea that they are under the strictest possible obligation to preserve the self-respect of their men—that men whose self-respect has been destroyed are of little value as soldiers; to so conduct themselves that they will always be not only an example, but also a source of inspiration; that the best discipline is not founded upon fear but upon respect for and confidence in the officer. The

the maintenance of efficiency and high morale, have ever present evidence of the human element in his relations with his men.

THE FAILURES AND DEFICIENCIES OF OFFICERS AFFECT MEN.

When troops come back from war dissatisfied with their officers—hating service—it can be asserted that the officer body has failed to understand the real function of an officer, that is, to create that spirit of discipline which is founded upon mutual respect and confidence.



CAMP MILLS, WHERE THE RAINBOW DIVISION WAS TRAINED

Camp Mills at Mineola, Long Island, was intended for an embarkation camp, but the Forty-Second, or Rainbow Division, received the greater part of its training here. The organization included units from twenty-seven states. Times Photo Service

men will rise to the level of the officer and the spirit of service if he is a real leader; and the spirit of the men collectively is, of course, the spirit of the organization.

The first duty of a good officer is to look to the welfare of his men, and under this comes not only the training, but also their physical condition, their food, their clothing, their morale—in brief, everything which tends to bring them upon the battlefield in the best possible physical and moral condition to fight a successful battle.

The officer must have impressed upon him that if he is fit to be an officer he will be able to maintain friendly and kindly relations with his men, and at the same time maintain a rigid discipline. He must, in order to assure

When men first come for training they must be treated with the utmost patience. The officers should assume that the men are there to do their best. This assumption is correct in about 97 per cent of the cases. He must remember that the men are utterly without information upon military matters, and they have no idea of military distinctions—all of these matters must be explained to them. That the gradual merging of individuality into massed discipline to the extent necessary for the purpose of effective movement in large bodies can be done effectively only when it is done intelligently. Notwithstanding this massed discipline, there must be left the spirit of individuality, self-reliance and initiative, which has always characterized the

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individual American soldier and which the conditions of modern warfare make more and more important.

THE FIRST DAYS IN CAMP DIFFICULT FOR THE MEN.

The drafted men on arrival at the Division Cantonment were assigned to a Depot Brigade for physical examination—inoculation, vaccination, et cetera—equipment and pre-

and aiming drills; mechanism of the piece; instruction in the Articles of War; relations between officers and men; military courtesy; sanitation, personal and general. Drill was broken to advantage by periods of interesting games, not too strenuous in character. They were also given some work in company formations. In other words, the men were occupied with helpful



SETTING-UP EXERCISES AT CAMP HANCOCK

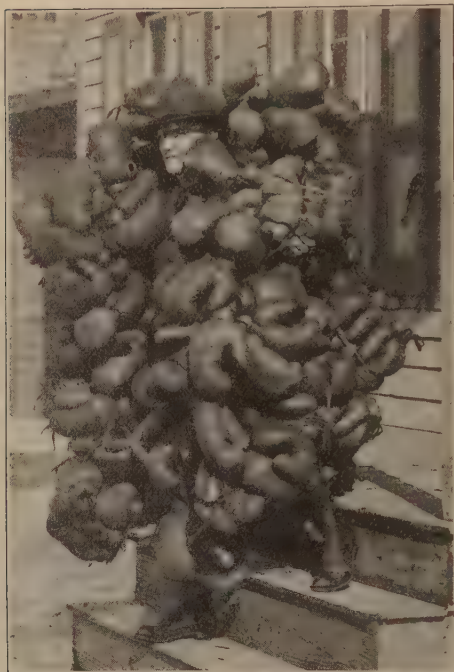
Much attention was given to the physical development of the young recruits. A carefully graded system of physical exercises strengthened the muscles, increased the endurance, and improved the carriage of the men. No part of the training was more important than this. This picture was taken at Camp Hancock where the Pennsylvania Guard was trained. U. S. Official.

liminary training. During this time, due to the change of food, surroundings, method of living, the prospect of long, hard service and to the fact that they were undergoing a biological struggle as they were receiving various inoculations, vaccinations, et cetera, their general physical resistance was lowered.

The men were kept in the Depot Brigade for about one month, during which time an immense amount of work was done. There were brief but lively periods of setting-up exercises, short and snappy instruction in the School of the Soldier and Squad; musketry instruction, such as pointing

work adapted to their physical capability. All of this instruction had value in quickening the men and in giving them bodily balance and control.

This system of training resulted in the men being ready when they were assigned to a division for infantry training to take up their work with some knowledge of the weapon which they had to use, its care and mechanism, and the basic principle of military service. They also had a fair knowledge of military courtesy, and if they were properly handled they were in good physical condition and keen for their real work.



TEXT-BOOKS FOR THE ARMY

All athletic sports were encouraged, and few were more popular than boxing. The instructor at Camp Dix, New Jersey, is shown carrying his text-books.

New York Times Photo Service

HOW WAS AN AMERICAN COMBAT DIVISION ORGANIZED?

The American Infantry Combat Division in the World War had an authorized strength of 1,006 officers and 27,084 enlisted men, and was organized as follows:

- (a) Division Headquarters,
- (b) 2 Infantry Brigades,
- (c) 1 Field Artillery Brigade,
- (d) Divisional Machine Gun Battalion,
- (e) 1 Regiment of Engineers (Sappers),
- (f) 1 Field Signal Battalion,
- (g) Train Headquarters and Military Police,
- (h) Ammunition Train,
- (i) Supply Train,
- (j) Engineer Train,
- (k) Sanitary Train.

(a) *Division Headquarters*, consisting of the Division Commander (Major General), his personal staff of 5 aides-de-camp and a division staff

composed of the General Staff, Technical Staff and Administrative Staff; one Headquarters Detachment which furnished clerks, stenographers, et cetera, for carrying on the business of the Headquarters; one Headquarters Troop which furnished the guard and mounted orderlies for Headquarters. Taken in the order named these parts of the Division Headquarters were organized as follows:

General Staff, consisting of the Chief of Staff and 3 assistants known as: Assistant Chief of Staff for Administration, Supply and Transportation, G-1; Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence, G-2; Assistant Chief of Staff for Operations, G-3, and their assistants.

Technical Staff, consisting of the Artillery Brigade Commander, Division Engineer, Division Surgeon, Division Signal Officer, Division Machine Gun Officer, Division Chemical Warfare Service Officer, Division Quartermaster, Division Ordnance Officer, Division Veterinarian, and their assistants.

Administrative Staff, consisting of the Division Adjutant, Division Inspector, Division Judge Advocate, and their assistants.

Headquarters Detachment, consisting of 5 field clerks, 1 postal agent and 110 enlisted men.

Headquarters Troop, consisting of 3 officers and 112 enlisted men.

Total strength of Division Headquarters: 55 officers, 5 field clerks, 1 postal agent and 232 enlisted men.

(b) *Two Infantry Brigades*, each consisting of Brigade Headquarters, Brigade Commander (Brigadier General) and 3 aides-de-camp, Brigade Adjutant and 20 enlisted men. To each brigade:

Two regiments of infantry, each consisting of Headquarters, Regimental Commander (Colonel), a second in command (Lieutenant Colonel), 4 officers, 1 each for operations, regimental adjutant, personnel adjutant and regimental intelligence, 1 chaplain; attached services—medical, 7 officers, 48 enlisted men; ordnance, 8 enlisted men. To each regiment:



TRAINING IN THE USE OF RIFLE GRENADES

The rifle grenade was propelled by the gas from the discharge of the gun and describing a curve fell into the enemy trenches where it sometimes did considerable damage when it exploded. This and the hand grenade were revivals of old devices used long ago in warfare, and then discarded for a long time.



BAYONET PRACTICE AT CAMP WHEELER

The bayonet is another weapon of which the use was supposed to be declining. The peculiar conditions of trench warfare led to a revival of the use of the bayonet. The instruction was largely under the direction of foreign non-commissioned officers. Here the men, masked and protected, are practicing with wooden weapons. When the actual weapons were given the men, the attack was made on sacks of straw or bundles of sticks hung from strong frames.

Pictures, U. S. Official

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One Headquarters Company, 7 officers and 336 enlisted men, organized into 5 platoons, i. e., Headquarters Platoon, Signal Platoon, Sappers and Bombers Platoon, Pioneer Platoon and 1-Pounder Gun Platoon,

One Supply Company, 6 officers and 164 enlisted men.



TRAINING MACHINE GUNNERS

These future machine-gunners being trained at Camp Dix are being trained not only in the use of their weapons but also to take advantage of any cover, however slight.

New York Times

One Machine Gun Company, 6 officers and 172 enlisted men, organized into a Headquarters, 3 platoons and a train.

Three Battalions, each consisting of Battalion Headquarters, 1 Battalion Commander (Major) and 2 officers, 1 each for Battalion Adjutant and Intelligence Officer. To each battalion:

Four Rifle Companies, 6 officers and 250 enlisted men each, organized into Headquarters and 4 platoons, each platoon organized into Platoon Headquarters and Four Sections (1st Sec-

tion, Hand Bombers; 2nd Section, Rifle Grenadiers; 3rd Section, Riflemen; 4th Section, Automatic Rifles); total strength each regiment 114 officers, 3,720 enlisted men;

One Machine Gun Battalion, consisting of Battalion Headquarters, Battalion Commander (Major), 2 officers, 1 each Battalion Adjutant and Battalion Supply Officer, and 44 enlisted men; attached services—medical, 1 officer, 12 enlisted men; ordnance, 4 enlisted men; 4 Machine Gun Companies, each consisting of 6 officers and 172 enlisted men; of same interior organization as Regimental Machine Gun Company.

Aggregate strength each brigade, 262 officers and 8,213 enlisted men.

(c) *Field Artillery Brigade*, consisting of Brigade Headquarters, Brigade Commander (Brigadier General) and 2 aides-de-camp, Brigade Adjutant and 8 officers—operations 3, intelligence 2, radio 1, telephone 1, munitions 1—and 67 enlisted men.

Two regiments 75-mm. guns (3-inch), horse-drawn, each regiment consisting of Regimental Headquarters, Regimental Commander (Colonel), second in command (Lieut. Colonel), regimental adjutant and personnel adjutant, 1 chaplain; attached services—medical, 3 officers and 23 enlisted men; veterinary, 2 officers, 6 enlisted; ordnance, 12 enlisted. To each regiment:

Headquarters Company, 17 officers and 205 enlisted men, organized into 4 sections; Supply Company, 5 officers and 108 enlisted men.

Two Battalions, consisting of Battalion Headquarters, Battalion Commander (Major) and 2 officers, 1 each for Battalion Adjutant and Intelligence Officer. To each battalion:

Three Batteries each, 5 officers, 194 enlisted men, organized into Battery Headquarters, instrument detail, sig-

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nal detail, scouts, firing battery, organized into 3 platoons and combat train.

Total regiment, 66 officers, 1,501 enlisted men.

One regiment 155-mm. guns, motorized, consisting of Regimental Headquarters, Regimental Commander (Colonel), second in command (Lt. Colonel), 2 officers, 1 adjutant and 1 personnel adjutant; attached services:

quarters, instrument detail, signal detail, scouts, 5 sections and train.

Total strength regiment, 74 officers, 1,608 enlisted men.

One Trench Mortar Battery, 6-inch Newton-Stokes mortars, 5 officers, 172 enlisted men, organized into Headquarters Section, Special Detail Section and 3 platoons.

Aggregate strength Field Artillery Brigade, 223 officers, 4,852 enlisted men.



TRAINING THE SIGNAL CORPS

The Signal Corps used a dozen different methods of conveying information. Where protected from enemy fire lights were often used. This shows the use of the heliograph which conveyed messages by flashes of light of different duration. This method depended upon the sun by day. The picture was made at Camp Meade, Maryland, where a part of the selected men from Pennsylvania were trained.

1 chaplain; medical, 3 officers and 19 enlisted men; ordnance, 16 enlisted men.

Headquarters Company, 17 officers and 195 enlisted men, organized into 4 sections.

Supply Company, organized into 3 sections, and

Three Battalions, each consisting of Battalion Headquarters, Battalion Commander (Major), 2 officers, 1 each Battalion Adjutant and Battalion Intelligence Officer; 2 batteries each, 5 officers and 130 enlisted men, organized into battery head-

(d) *Divisional Machine Gun Battalion* (motorized) consisting of Headquarters, Battalion Commander (Major), 2 officers, 1 each Battalion Adjutant and Battalion Supply Officer, 27 enlisted men; attached services, medical, 1 officer, 6 enlisted men; ordnance, 2 enlisted men; 2 companies, each has 6 officers, 172 men organized into a headquarters, and 3 platoons and train.

Aggregate strength of battalion, 16 officers, 379 enlisted men.

(e) *Regiment of Engineers* (Sappers), consisting of Headquarters, Regimental

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Commander (Colonel) second in command (Lt. Colonel), 6 officers as follows; regimental adjutant, personnel adjutant, 2 supply officers, intelligence officer and band leader; 1 chaplain; attached services, medical, 3 officers, 27 enlisted men; ordnance, 6 enlisted men.

Two battalions, consisting of Battalion Headquarters, battalion commander (Major), battalion adjutant

(g) *Train Headquarters and Military Police*, consisting of Headquarters, Trains Commander (colonel), 2 officers, 1 each Trains Adjutant and Trains Supply Officer, 18 enlisted men; attached services: medical, 1 officer, 6 enlisted; 1 Mobile Veterinary Section, 1 Veterinarian, 21 enlisted men; 3 Veterinary Field Units, 3 Veterinarians, 9 enlisted men; ordnance, 5 enlisted men.



SIGNAL CORPS MEN LEARNING THE USE OF THE TELEPHONE

In no other war was the telephone ever used as in the World War. There were regular Centrals like those in any city, behind the lines and several modifications of regular instruments for use close to the lines. A network of wires was spread on, above or under the ground in some localities. U. S. Official

and 1 officer—battalion adjutant; and 3 companies, each consisting of 6 officers, 250 enlisted men.

Aggregate strength of regiment of engineers (sappers), 52 officers and 1,695 enlisted men.

(f) *One Field Signal Battalion*, consisting of Battalion Headquarters, Battalion Commander (Major), 1 officer, Battalion Adjutant, 13 enlisted men; attached services, medical, 1 officer, 14 enlisted men.

One radio company, 3 officers, 75 enlisted men; one wire company, 3 officers, 75 enlisted men; one outpost company, 5 officers, 280 enlisted men.

Aggregate strength of Field Signal Battalion, 15 officers, 473 enlisted men.

One company Military Police, 5 officers, 200 enlisted men, organized into 4 platoons.

Aggregate Trains Headquarters and Military Police, 14 officers, 273 enlisted men.

(h) *Ammunition Train*, consisting of Train Headquarters, Train Commander (Lt. Colonel), 2 agents, 1 Train Adjutant and Supply Officer, 28 enlisted men.

One Motor Battalion, consisting of Battalion Headquarters, Battalion Commander (Major), 1 Battalion Adjutant; 1 Assistant Supply Officer 30 enlisted men, 4 truck companies, each consisting of 3 officers, 146 enlisted men, organized into 6 sections.

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Aggregate Motor Battalion, 15 officers, 614 enlisted men.

One Horsed Battalion, consisting of Battalion Headquarters, Battalion Commander (Major), 1 Battalion Adjutant, 1 Assistant Supply Officer, 21 enlisted men; 2 caisson companies, each consisting of 3 officers, 191 enlisted men organized into 11 sections; 1 wagon company, 3 officers, 153 enlisted men organized into 12 sections.

(j) *Engineer Train*, consisting of 2 officers, 82 enlisted men, organized into 2 sections.

Aggregate Engineer Train, 2 officers, 82 enlisted men.

(k) *Sanitary Train*, consisting of Train Headquarters, Train Commander (Lieutenant Colonel), 1 Personnel Adjutant, 2 supply officers, 14 enlisted men.



A BEAN FIELD AT CAMP DIX

In their spare time the young soldiers in training joined in the effort to increase the production of food. At some camps considerable areas were cultivated by the men and valuable additions to their diet were grown.

Aggregate Horsed Battalion, 12 officers, 556 enlisted men; attached services—1 Mobile Ordnance Repair Shop, 3 officers, 45 enlisted men; ordnance, 1 officer, 23 enlisted men; medical, 3 officers, 29 enlisted men.

Aggregate Ammunition Train, 38 officers, 1,295 enlisted men.

(i) *Supply Train* (motorized), consisting of Train Headquarters, Train Commander (Captain), 1 Train Adjutant, 1 Train Supply Officer, 13 enlisted men; attached services, medical, 1 officer, 10 enlisted men.

Six Truck Companies, each consisting of 2 officers, 77 enlisted men, organized into 3 sections.

Aggregate Supply Train, 16 officers, 485 enlisted men.

One Ambulance Section, consisting of Section Headquarters, Section Commander (Major), 3 enlisted men.

Three Ambulance Companies (motorized) each 5 officers, 122 enlisted men, organized into 3 ambulance platoons, 1 service platoon.

One Ambulance Company (animal drawn), 5 officers, 153 enlisted men, organized into 3 ambulance platoons, 1 service platoon.

Aggregate Ambulance Section, 21 officers, 525 enlisted men.

One Field Hospital Section, consisting of Section Headquarters, Section Commander (Major), 3 enlisted men, and

Three Field Hospital Companies (motorized), each consisting of 6 officers and 83 enlisted men, and

One Field Hospital Company (animal

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drawn) consisting of 6 officers and 82 enlisted men.

All with same organization as that of Ambulance Section.

Aggregate Field Hospital Section, 25 officers, 337 enlisted men.

Attached Services, 8 Camp Infirmaries, 16 enlisted men.

Armament of the division as follows: 16,163 rifles; 960 automatic rifles; 224 machine guns (heavy); 36 anti-aircraft machine guns; 24 155-mm. howitzers; 48 3-inch or 75-mm. guns; 12 one-pounder guns; 36 trench mortars; 1,560 rifle grenade discharges; 13,139 pistols; 1920 trench knives.



ATHLETIC SPORTS AT THE PELHAM BAY STATION

Young volunteers for the navy were first sent to one of the naval stations, of which there were about twenty permanent or temporary. Here they had instruction in swimming and handling boats as well as military drill and physical training. Here the young naval reserves are playing push-ball in the time allowed for sports. U. S. Official

Divisional Medical Supply Unit, 1 officer, 8 enlisted men.

Aggregate Sanitary Train, 51 officers, 900 enlisted men.

The following services were at times attached to an American Infantry Combat Division:

One Bakery Company, 2 officers, 101 enlisted men.

One Clothing and Bath Unit, 1 officer, 21 enlisted men.

One Headquarters Conservation and Reclamation Service, 11 officers, 20 enlisted men.

One Sales Commissary Unit, 1 officer, 14 enlisted men.

One-half Section Graves Registration, 1 officer, 25 enlisted men.

INFANTRY TRAINING THE GROUNDWORK OF ALL LATER TRAINING.

Upon completion of this preliminary training the men were transferred from the Depot Brigade to organizations in the division where their instruction was continued, the first month of which was largely devoted to organization, development and training of the platoon in close and extended order; preliminary work in the School of the Company, and basic training. From the beginning, non-commissioned officers were trained as platoon and group leaders, for there never was a time when efficient leadership was more important.

During the latter part of this period, troops began record practice, rifle

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firing, and preliminary instruction in gas and use of the gas mask. It was important for the men to have this instruction early in their training period as it was not known how soon they would be called for.

vision and with the valued assistance of British and French officers who had already gained much useful experience in the war.

During the third month of training (the second month in the Division)



A SECTION OF TRENCHES AT A TRAINING CAMP

The attempt was made to visualize for the young soldiers the conditions they would meet in France. This section of trench is as elaborately constructed as any in a strong sector. The men are charging upon it with the same care and attention that they would bestow upon an actual trench filled with Germans. U. S. Official

TRENCH INSTRUCTION UNDER BRITISH AND FRENCH OFFICERS.

During the preliminary rifle practice on the range, the men were instructed in night firing, using both illuminated and non-illuminated targets, and in addition they received instruction in firing in daylight and at night wearing their gas masks. The firing on the range was done by regiment, one battalion following the other. As each battalion completed its record firing, it was moved to a trench system for instruction in trench warfare. The instruction period in the trench system for each battalion was two days and two nights. Relief was made at night and the relieved battalion marched back to its barracks. This work was carried on under the direction, super-

instruction progressed to include that of the battalion, regiment and brigade, and during this month each regiment was given a period of at least five days in a trench system area where every man was given instruction in the use of the automatic rifle, throwing live grenades, going through wire, intensive bayonet work over a difficult course, consisting of trench entanglements, runways, jump-offs, et cetera. Also exercises in occupying trenches, taking trenches, reorganizing trenches, preparation for counter attacks, et cetera. The object of this instruction was to have every man and every organization have some experience with what was considered as absolutely essential to modern training. The scene shown above is typical of this training.

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VARIETY OF WORK DURING THE FIRST THREE MONTHS.

During this month the intelligence personnel received special attention. It was carefully organized and trained in the requirements of intelligence work, which has become more and more important, and upon its efficiency depends very largely the success of operations.

In the latter part of this month instruction in liaison between units and

problems, small matters, and the staff work connected with them had been accomplished. In short, the division was tied together as a battle unit.

ARTILLERY, ENGINEER, AND SIGNAL TRAINING BEGUN EARLY.

Artillery troops were given basic infantry and artillery training. It was recognized that the all-important training for artillery was making them expert gunners as quickly as possible. With that end in view actual firing



LEARNING HOW TO FIRE A STOKES TRENCH MORTAR

The Stokes mortar, the invention of an English civilian, was a valuable weapon at close quarters. It dropped bombs into the enemy trenches with considerable accuracy. Though provided with a tripod, this was seldom used by the soldiers in open warfare. This is a detachment of the 142d Infantry in training in France.

U. S. Official

with the artillery was taken up, first through a series of demonstrations and then through practical problems executed in the field. Great attention was given to this instruction in order that liaison might be made as nearly perfect mechanically as possible, and in order to build up a sympathetic understanding between the different arms and branches of the service. Rest periods between exercises were utilized for talks to the men on various subjects of general and military interest.

By the end of the third month the men had had a great variety of work, and as a rule there was no flagging of interest. Every organization had been put through its basic work, combat

was begun in their first month of training. Equitation and co-related matters with reference to traction and care of animals was considered as of secondary importance and the training programme was arranged accordingly. Instruction in liaison with the other arms of the division, combat problems and manœuvres by day and night was taken up in the third month of training.

Engineer troops were given basic infantry training and instruction in combat formation, problems and manœuvres. Their technical training was considered as of first importance. It progressed rapidly, for the reason that the personnel was made up of men drawn from the crafts trained to

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skilled mechanical and technical work. Instruction in liaison with the other arms of the division, combat problems covering construction of field fortifications, et cetera, both by day and night, was taken up in the third month of their training.

Signal troops were given basic infantry training and technical training in all means of signal communications

a machine gun school, conducted in the division by experienced expert officers, trained in battle. The effect of this system was to standardize the instruction and to develop quickly machine gunners. They were instructed in the use of standard machine guns in use by the Entente and their allies.

In the third month of their training they were instructed in liaison with



THE SURGICAL WARD AT CAMP WADSWORTH

Though it had not massive buildings the hospital at Camp Wadsworth, at Spartanburg, South Carolina, where the New York National Guard was trained, had every necessary appliance for the treatment of the sick. The buildings were roomy and were flooded with air and sunlight. The well men at these camps lived in tents.

such as wireless telegraphy, buzzer-fone, telephone, visual signalling, pigeons, et cetera.

In the third month of their training they worked with the other arms of the division in combat problems and manœuvres in solving the construction, maintenance and operation of all means of signal communication by day and night, in open warfare and in trench warfare.

THE TRAINING OF THE MACHINE GUN ORGANIZATIONS.

Machine gun organizations were given basic infantry training. All machine gun units were instructed in

the other arms of the division, in combat problems and manœuvres by day and night, both in open warfare and in trench warfare.

THE DUTIES OF THE VARIOUS TRAINS IN A DIVISION.

Trains.—Men of the trains were given basic infantry instruction and instruction in the care, maintenance and operation of means of transportation. Reading of road maps and in estimating transportation capabilities of roads and material was specialized in. Ammunition train organizations were instructed in the transportation of various classes of shell, ammunition,

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et cetera, by day and night. Supply train organizations were instructed in the transportation of supplies, by day and night. Engineer trains received special instruction in handling the technical material pertaining to the engineer troops, by day and night. Sanitary train organizations were specially trained in care and evacuation of sick and wounded, transporting, setting-up and maintenance of field hospitals, under conditions of open warfare and trench warfare, by day and night.

In their third month of training, all trains were instructed in liaison with the other arms of the division, in combat problems and manœuvres by day and night.

SOME GENERAL REMARKS ON TRAINING.

The fundamental principles of warfare are as old as time, but methods of combat change with the introduction of new kinds of weapons and with our increased knowledge of the use of terrain. For this reason it was essential to have instructors who were familiar with modern methods of combat. These instructors were furnished by the Allies and they were of inestimable value to us in our efforts to prepare for the struggle. They impressed upon the men and officers, especially the latter, the underlying principle of reinforcing hard-pressed points not by men but by fire, that is, by the use of automatic rifles and machine guns.

Our officers had not, as a class, learned to appreciate this. Nor had they sufficient knowledge of the handling of platoon and company by modern methods to realize what a wonderfully effective instrumentality

the new forms of organization had given them. All of these things the Allied instructors taught us and impressed upon us.

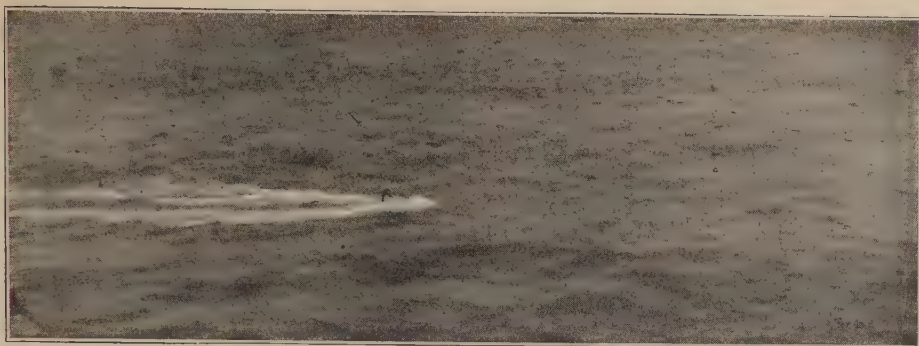
Bayonet training, of course, gives a desire for close combat, and a sense of personal power to the man who is well trained. Certain kinds of games, that make a man more alert, quick and strong on his feet, are very valuable in training. Everything possible must be done to increase the self-respect of the men, to teach them to salute as though they were proud of their profession, and to cause them to take a real pride in being soldiers of the nation.

TIME NECESSARY FOR THE FULLEST MEASURE OF SUCCESS.

The efficiency of the divisional training will be very largely measured by the amount of time which is available for this work. The doing of things over and over again, under varying conditions of weather, terrain, by day and night, is what makes a highly effective divisional fighting unit pliable, resourceful and competent to adjust itself properly to any problem which may confront it.

The foregoing represents the general procedure which is found most effective for training American divisions for the war of position and the war of movement, as exemplified during the recent war. The building up of morale and the keeping of the elements of a division together, making it an organization instead of an aggregation, cannot be too strongly emphasized.

The training of a division is a big job and an interesting one, and if properly done, insures good Discipline, Efficiency, mutual Respect and Confidence between Officers and Men.



The Wake Left by the Periscope of a Submarine

CHAPTER LII

The Course of the War During 1917

NO IMMEDIATE DECISION IS APPARENT THOUGH THE
WHOLE WORLD IS IN ARMS

THE year 1917 was a year of alternate exultation and depression for both sides, but as it closed the deadlock was unbroken. All Europe was tired of war, but in spite of openly manifest war-weariness no one could prophesy when the end would come. During 1916 military leaders had had full opportunity to reach a decision, but had failed. The peace-makers attempted to end the struggle in 1917, with no better success.

THE FIRST PEACE PROPOSAL BY THE CENTRAL POWERS.

Just before the end of 1916 (December 12) the Central Powers proposed a Peace Conference without cessation of hostilities, or suggesting any basis of discussion. Their proposal was forwarded to the Entente Powers by the neutrals to whom it was addressed, and, on December 30, a joint reply signed by Russia, France, Great Britain, Japan, Italy, Belgium, Montenegro, Portugal and Rumania was returned declaring that no peace was possible without reparation.

President Wilson had prepared a note inquiring upon what terms the belligerent powers were prepared to make peace, before the publication of the note of the Central Powers. With some hesitation it was published on December 18. To it the Central Powers returned an evasive answer. The

Entente nations, on the other hand, declared that while they could not give specific details of their demands, the groundwork must include restoration of Belgium, Serbia and Montenegro with compensation; evacuation of the invaded portions of France, Russia and Rumania, with reparation; the reorganization of Europe upon a stable basis; the expulsion of the Turk; and the liberation of subject peoples. At the same time they disclaimed the desire to destroy German nationality.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY SECRETLY NEGOTI- ATES FOR PEACE.

Austria-Hungary had suffered more than Germany because of less efficient organization, and was less united in sentiment. During the spring of 1917 secret peace negotiations with the Allies were undertaken. The whole truth is not yet known, but apparently King Alfonso of Spain, a relative of the Austrian Emperor, was delegated to approach France. A brother of the Empress, Prince Sixtus of Bourbon, himself a soldier in the Belgian army, made one or more visits to Austria, and conferred with representatives of France in Switzerland. Mutual distrust, fear of Germany, and finally the collapse of Russia which gave new heart to the Austrian rulers, all had something to do with the failure of the negotiations.

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THE POPE ISSUES A NOTE CONTAINING PROPOSALS FOR PEACE.

Pope Benedict XV had, at various times since his elevation to the Papacy, expressed his hopes for peace. On August 1, 1917, he issued a note to the belligerent powers suggesting a basis



POPE BENEDICT XV

Giacomo della Chiesa, Archbishop of Bologna, succeeded Pius X in 1914. On August 1, 1917, he issued a note suggesting a basis of peace for the warring nations.

for peace, to include among other things: decrease of armaments; arbitration of international disputes; freedom and community of the seas; renunciation of indemnities, with certain possible exceptions; evacuation and restoration of all occupied territories; examination of rival territorial claims, as for example, Alsace-Lorraine and the Trentino.

By this time the United States had entered the war, and the reply of

President Wilson, August 27, was tacitly accepted as the reply of all the nations opposing the Teutonic alliance. President Wilson pointed out that the actions of the German government would render any negotiations with it fruitless, that an irresponsible government could not be trusted, and appealed to the German people to assert themselves. The Central Powers attempted to flatter Pope Benedict, by pretending to accept his ideas, but their actions did not square with their words.

A STRONG DESIRE FOR PEACE MANIFESTED IN GERMANY.

In Germany, meanwhile, there was a strong movement for peace. The declaration of unlimited submarine warfare had not brought Great Britain to her knees; the appeals of Pope Benedict for peace had had their effect upon the Centre (Catholic) party; the denunciations of Socialists of other countries had, perhaps, had some slight effect upon the German Socialists. Greater than all of these, Germany was tired of privations. The formation of an anti-Government combination of parties and factions led to the retirement of Bethmann-Hollweg as Imperial Chancellor on July 14, and five days later the Reichstag passed a resolution declaring against annexations, and in favor of a peace by understandings. The Reichstag had so little influence in the governmental scheme of the German Empire that the real rulers paid little attention to the declaration and the Kaiser appointed a typical Junker, Dr. George Michaelis, as Chancellor, who soon adjourned the Reichstag.

In October when the Reichstag re-assembled there was much angry discussion between the Conservative and Radical elements, and Dr. Michaelis resigned. He was succeeded by Count von Hertling, one of the leaders of the Centre party. Count von Hertling promised sweeping reforms in the internal affairs of the Empire and expressed himself as favoring peace. Meanwhile the Bolshevik element in Russia had secured control, and German chances for success seemed



SCOTTISH PRISONERS IN A GERMAN PRISON CAMP

There seems to be no doubt but that British prisoners were treated with especial severity by their German captors, but it was a point of honor among them not to weaken. This group of Scotch prisoners seem to be keeping up their spirits in spite of poor and insufficient food, and the general hardness of their lot.



BARRACKS AT THE PRISON CAMP AT DÖBERITZ

The Döberitz prison camp was about twenty miles from Berlin. Here some of the barracks were of metal. At some camps there were wooden structures and stables, warehouses and other buildings were used at other places. Many English were confined at Döberitz including a large part of the Naval Brigade captured at Antwerp early in the war. Apparently these are civilians, who were, however, usually sent to Ruhleben.

Ruschin
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brighter. Both in Austria-Hungary and Germany the militarists increased their influence, and the liberal elements either became silent or imperialistic, and the Central Powers ceased to seek for peace.

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION AND AMERICAN INTERVENTION.

Reference has been made to the Russian Revolution and to American intervention. Both occurred at nearly the same time and the causes leading up to them are so many and so complex that they can not easily be summarized in less space than the chapters devoted to these two most important events of the year.

The treachery of the Russian Premier, Boris von Stürmer, has been discussed at length. He and many in the court circle had clearly shown that they did not desire a defeated Germany, not so much, perhaps, because they favored Germany, as because they favored autocracy and feared that the end of autocracy in Germany would mean its end in Russia also. Though the Duma was able to have Stürmer dismissed, the "dark forces" continued to plot, in spite of the denunciations of the leaders of the Duma. The Government apparently was seeking to induce revolt which would then be quelled by force, thereby strengthening the reactionary elements.

THE REVOLUTION IN PETROGRAD ALMOST BLOODLESS.

On March 11, 1917, Premier Golitzin prorogued the Duma, which refused to disperse. That same day soldiers in Petrograd refused to fire upon crowds in the streets and the next day soldiers disarmed their officers, who would not agree to lead them against the police. The radicals had organized Councils (Soviets) of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates which gained great influence over the soldiers, both in Petrograd and at the front. On March 15, it was announced in the Duma that the Tsar was to be deposed, a Provisional Government constituted, and a Constituent Assembly was to be called as soon as possible to determine the future of Russia. The Tsar did abdicate for himself and his son and named, as his

successor, his brother, the Grand Duke Michael, who refused the empty honor.

The Provisional Government, composed chiefly of the moderate elements in the Duma, tried to carry on the government and the war. The story of the difficulties, and the progressive demoralization of the Russian army is told elsewhere (Chapter XLII). Gradually the extremist (Bolshevist)



COUNT CZERNIN

While Foreign Minister of Austria-Hungary, Count Czernin was concerned in the mysterious negotiations for peace during 1917, and was forced to resign early in 1918.

elements gained control both in the army and among the civil population. The Russian people had undergone great suffering and they were weary of war. The Provisional Government did not end the war. The Bolsheviks promised peace, and November 7, 8, by military force they secured control of Petrograd, and soon extended their power over other parts of the country. On December 15, a truce was signed with the Teutonic armies.

THE GERMAN DECLARATION OF UNLIMITED SUBMARINE WARFARE.

The Allied cause, however, had received an addition, which, as circum-



PART OF A GERMAN BATH TRAIN

The German sanitary equipment early in the war was very complete, and no pains were spared to keep the soldiers in health. This is the "Badzug," a very important feature in the scheme. It was a series of shower baths on wheels which could be moved from place to place. This is the tank containing the water.



THE BATHING COMPARTMENT OF THE TRAIN

Careful inspection will show near the roof of this car several nozzles through which water from the tank shown above can flow. Soldiers were detailed by companies for bathing when the "Badzug" was in the neighborhood. Toward the end of the war the equipment gave out and was not renewed. The German soldier had very few comforts during the last year or two he was fighting.

Pictures, Ruschin

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stances proved was to counterbalance the Russian defection. The German government had promised in May, 1916, that the submarine campaign would be conducted like ordinary cruiser warfare, that is, that no merchant vessels would be sunk without warning, and without provisions for the safety of their crews. On January 31, 1917, a note was presented announc-

execution. A request that Congress authorize the arming of American merchantmen passed the House by an overwhelming majority, March 1, but was defeated by a filibuster in the Senate as the session ended by limitation on March 4. Meanwhile the "Zimmermann Note," dated January 16, seeking an alliance with Mexico, had been published.



SHIPS OF STONE TO REPLACE WOOD OR METAL

The destruction of tonnage by the submarine and the necessity of using so much of what was left for war purposes led to considerable use of concrete vessels. This boat was constructed at Ivry-sur-Seine, France, during 1917. Concrete vessels were also constructed by other nations, and generally proved seaworthy.

French Official from N. Y. Times

ing that, beginning the next day, February 1, all sea traffic within certain zones around Great Britain, France, Italy and the Eastern Mediterranean would "be prevented by all weapons," except that the United States might under restrictions be permitted to send one ship a week to England.

President Wilson immediately broke off relations with Germany, ordering Ambassador Gerard home and sending Ambassador von Bernstorff his passports, though he declared that he was unwilling to believe that Germany would actually put her threats into

THE UNITED STATES, APRIL 6, ENTERS THE WAR.

Germany made good her threats and within twenty-four hours (March 16, 17) three American ships were sunk on the homeward voyage and American citizens lost their lives. Congress was called in special session, and on April 2, President Wilson asked for recognition of a state of war with Germany. The Senate by a vote of 82 to 6 agreed, April 4, and the House followed April 6, by a vote of 373 to 50. The formal proclamation was issued the same day.

The regular army and the National Guard were increased and a compulsory

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Selective Service Act was passed, authorizing the calling of 1,000,000 men from those between twenty-one and thirty-one years of age, with proper provisions for exemptions. Registration day was June 5, and on July 15, the order in which the registrants were to be called was settled, as described elsewhere. Two Liberty Loan Acts were passed, and loans of seven billion

sectors. Moreover, it was clear that the United States was in the war to the extent of its resources, whether of men or material.

The intervention of the United States had not come too soon. Both France and Great Britain had borne a heavy burden. The latter had been obliged to finance some of her Allies and the loans from the United States



THE STOCK EXCHANGE, BERLIN, WHICH REMAINED OPEN

Military authorities in Germany took little chance of reverse and failure being reflected in civil life by a panic on the Stock Exchange, for they ordered it to be kept open. This was perfectly feasible as the blockade left only domestic stocks on the market, which by degrees passed under government control. Picture from Henry Ruschin

dollars to the Allies were authorized. Revenue, food control, and shipping acts were passed, and in December the government took over the control of the railroads.

THE UNITED STATES AT ONCE SENDS SHIPS AND MEN.

Within a few weeks after the declaration of war American destroyers were on patrol in European waters, and in June General John J. Pershing and the first contingent of American troops reached France. Before the end of the year five divisions besides various special units; about 200,000 men in all, were in France, and American soldiers were in the front line trenches in quiet

were welcome, as was also the assistance against the submarines. In France the phenomenon known as "defeatism" was widespread (see p. 500), and the moral effect of the presence of United States troops had a tonic effect long before any considerable numbers were ready for the fighting line.

FIGHTING ON THE WESTERN FRONT DURING 1917.

The fighting during the year must be dismissed in a few words. On the Western Front the Allies held the offensive. The British and French attacks on the Somme in 1916 had pushed the Germans to the edge of the high ground, and had left them holding

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an awkward salient around Noyon, though the Allies had failed to take Bapaume and Péronne. Marshal von Hindenburg prepared a strong system of trenches, first called the Siegfried Line, but later called by his own name, running from the neighborhood of Arras to the heights of the Aisne. To



SPIKES BEFORE A GERMAN TRENCH

this he withdrew during March, 1917, just as the Allied attack was about to begin. About 1,000 square miles of occupied territory were given up, and all the country between the old and the new positions was wantonly laid waste.

The British attack around Arras began April 9, and Vimy Ridge was soon taken. The French attacked the heights of the Aisne, April 16. The scheme of General Nivelle, now commander-in-chief, was audacious. He would not "nibble" or wage a war of attrition. He would attack almost simultaneously in four major operations and break through. He made some progress but the plan was impossibly difficult, and the losses were tremendous. Nivelle was succeeded by Pétain,

while Foch was made Chief of Staff at Paris. The old method of seeking limited objectives was resumed. Craonne and both ends of the Chemin des Dames (Ladies' Road) were taken and held against German attack, while the British strengthened their position around Arras.

THE WEARY STRUGGLE FOR THE PASSCHENDAELE RIDGE.

Later (June 7), Sir Douglas Haig, in one of the most brilliant operations of the war, took the Messines-Wytschaete Ridge between Ypres and Lens, wiping out a German salient and strengthening the British hold in Ypres. The next British move was an offensive from Ypres against the Passchendaele Ridge. The battle raged from July until November in the face of torrential rains, but the British pushed steadily forward with the double object of gaining ground and drawing as many German troops as possible from before the French, farther south. Finally the village of Passchendaele was entered, October 30, and a week later fully secured by the Canadians.

Next came the drive on Cambrai (November 20), which almost succeeded, but a German counter-attack forced the British to retire, giving up a part of their gains. The British were learning that the Hindenburg Line, or any other line, could be taken. The British gains were substantial, though the cost in men and munitions had been high.

General Pétain's first duty was to reorganize his shattered armies and to rebuild their belief in their invincibility. A brilliant attack northwest of Soissons in October gained ground and forced the Germans to give up the remaining portion of the Chemin des Dames. In August and September the French had already regained the greater part of the ground around Verdun, lost the previous year.

THE GREAT ITALIAN DISASTER ON THE ISONZO

Slowly over great obstacles the Italian armies had made their way toward Trieste. Around Caporetto, on the upper Isonzo, the lines were lightly held by inferior troops, as no

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attack was anticipated. Whether by incompetence of commanders in the region or because of treachery, considerable fraternization of Austrian and Italian soldiers took place, and the former took opportunity to sow discontent. Various other reasons discussed elsewhere (Chapter 47) tended to impair Italian morale. On October 21, after a severe bombardment, Ger-

June and July toward Lemberg with decided success at first, but the Russian soldiers were becoming demoralized. Soviets had been organized at the front and orders were discussed by the rank and file before they were obeyed. Reports that the lands of Russia were being distributed were spread, and some regiments determined to go home to get their share. All the gains of



HEADQUARTERS OF A GERMAN BATTALION COMMANDER ON THE WESTERN FRONT

The Germans held some parts of the Western Front so long that they began to feel a proprietary interest in them. Quarters for officers shown above were not uncommon in quiet sectors. Much care had been lavished upon them, and they are doubtless exceedingly comfortable. Often costly rugs and china from neighboring chateaux were placed in them.

man divisions which had been substituted for the supposedly friendly Austrians, broke through, leaving the flank of the two armies on the southern Isonzo exposed. The necessary withdrawal became almost a rout, and the Italians were forced to fall back to the Piave river. There the new Commander-in-Chief, General Diaz, with the help of French and British held the line, and repulsed desperate Austro-German assaults, even regaining some of the lost ground. Though shaken, Italy was still a factor in the war.

Of the Russian fighting little need be said. General Brusilov struck in

1917 and 1916 were wiped out, and the Russian army ceased to exist as a dependable military force. On the Eastern Front, only the Rumanians held fast.

THE PRESTIGE OF THE TURK RECEIVES A STUNNING BLOW.

In the Near East the Allies were more successful. Venizelos, who had been prevented from placing Greece on the side of the Allies by King Constantine, raised the standard of revolt and joined the Allied forces at Saloniki. On June 12, King Constantine was forced to abdicate in favor of his second son, and on June 25, Venizelos became



CHINESE COOLIES AT WORK BEHIND THE BRITISH LINES

British Official

Prime Minister of all Greece, which he took into the war against the Central Powers on July 2. No longer was the Greek army a threat against the rear of the Allied forces at Saloniki. No important military operations, however, occurred on this front until the next year.

In Mesopotamia General Maude had been preparing to recover the ground lost by the surrender of Kut-el-Amara, but he did not move until his expedition was well equipped. In February Kut was taken and in March Bagdad was entered. Next Ramidiya and Samara were taken, and but for the demoralization of the Russians in Armenia the Turkish armies might have been destroyed.

The British forces advancing from the Suez Canal crossed the Sinai Desert and entered Palestine. Under

General Allenby, Beersheba and Gaza were taken. Advancing along the coast, Jaffa was taken, November 16, and then began the movement to encircle Jerusalem. The Turkish outer defenses were taken by storm, and on December 10, Jerusalem was surrendered. Turkish power and prestige, by the operations in Mesopotamia and Palestine, had suffered blows from which they could not recover.

The war seemed to have become a question of endurance on which the side with the stronger nerves would win—the side which could hold out “the last quarter of an hour.” Some of the nations on both sides had been shaken, or put out of the war. Would the strong members of the coalition be able to hold the wavering members in line? This was the question which 1918 was to answer.



Barges of the Commission in Rotterdam

CHAPTER LIII

The Commission for Relief in Belgium

THE STORY OF THE GREATEST WORK OF RELIEF EVER
SUCCESSFULLY ACCOMPLISHED

BY VERNON KELLOGG

Ex-Director, in Brussels, of the Commission for Relief in Belgium

MANY American missions and commissions went to Europe during the war on many various errands. Most of them were formed after America had broken with Germany, but a very important one began its work within three months after the Great War began. This was the Commission for Relief in Belgium, commonly referred to by its members and the Belgians as the "C.R.B." Its existence as an organization and its work began in October, 1914, and continued until the signing of the treaty of peace in the summer of 1919. In that period of four and a half years of active effort it collected by donation and purchase and transported overseas and through Holland into Belgium and North France nearly five million tons of foodstuffs and clothing of a value of about seven hundred million dollars.

THE AMERICAN COMMISSION FOR RELIEF
IN BELGIUM.

For the proper protection and equitable distribution of these supplies inside the German-occupied territories of Belgium and North France, the C.R.B. was solely responsible from November, 1914 until April, 1917, at which time America entered the war and Americans were no longer allowed to remain. This responsibility then

devolved upon a joint Dutch-Spanish Commission, although all of the handling of funds, and the purchase and transportation of the supplies, both overseas and through Holland up to the Belgian border, were still carried on by the American Commission.

The actual detailed distribution of the supplies to the nearly ten million shut-in people was effected under the constant supervision of the American volunteers of the C.R.B. by about thirty-five thousand French and Belgian relief workers, thoroughly organized into national, provincial, and local committees. The American volunteers within the occupied territories were never more than forty-five at any one time—the German military authorities made constant objection to having more than twenty-five or thirty—but about two hundred were used altogether during the period of the Commission's work.

ONLY ONE-SIXTH OF THE BELGIAN POPULATION AGRICULTURAL.

What made the "relief of Belgium" necessary, and necessary so soon after the beginning of the war? Belgium is not, as the United States is, self-sustaining as to food. Except for tea, coffee, and spices, and a part of its sugar, America produces within its borders

all of the food it really needs to keep its people alive and even comfortably alive. Of the more important staples, such as bread-grains, meat, milk, and fats, it produces a surplus. If an enemy could completely blockade it, it could go on living indefinitely.

But Belgium could not; nor could England and France and Italy. Belgium is not primarily an agricultural country, despite the fact that what agriculture it does have is the most intensive and highly developed in Europe. Only one-sixth of its people support themselves by agriculture. It is, indeed, the most highly industrialized and densely populated country in Europe, depending upon importations for fifty per cent of its annual general food needs and for seventy-five per cent of its needed bread-grains. These food importations must go on constantly, as must corresponding exportations of manufactured articles to pay for them.

BELGIUM EFFECTIVELY BLOCKADED FROM THE BEGINNING.

But Belgium was, from the beginning of the war, effectively blockaded. It was shut up within a "ring of steel" through which no persons or supplies could pass in or out except under extraordinary circumstances, such as a special permission from both Germans and Allies, or a daring and almost impossible blockade-running. Within ten weeks after the entrance into its country of the first invading Germans on August 4, 1914, all of Belgium, except that forever famous little northwestern corner, was in the hands of the enemy. For all practical purposes it was German territory. So the Allied blockade of Germany necessarily included Belgium; while, on the other hand, the German occupying authorities naturally cut off all communication between the Belgians and their friends, the outside Allies. The result was that by the first of October the Belgians saw clearly the near end of their meagre food stocks and the swiftly approaching spectre of starvation. Some relief had to be provided, and provided quickly. That relief came by the rapid organization and strenuous efforts of the Commission for Relief in Belgium.

The first efforts to avert, or at least postpone the impending disaster, were made by the Belgians themselves. All transportation and communication inside of the country was paralyzed by the rapid spread of the invaders and the rigorously repressive and destructive measures adopted by them. Even the food existing in the country, where not already seized by the invading armies, could not be moved from the producing and storage centres to the consumers in the congested manufacturing and mining centres and to the large cities, without special effort and arrangement.

PRICES FIXED BY ROYAL DECREE IN BELGIUM.

It was evident, too, that special measures were needed to conserve the native food stocks and make them last as long as possible, and to prevent unfair handling of them and insure their equitable distribution to the people. In all the larger cities, therefore, measures were taken to these ends. In the very first days of August, even before the Germans had entered Brussels, Burgomaster Max of that city had decided to have the city acquire stocks of foodstuffs to be held in reserve against the coming need. On August 14, King Albert issued from the Belgian Great Headquarters a decree fixing maximum prices at which various staple foodstuffs, such as flour, bread, potatoes, salt, sugar, and rice, could be sold, and giving the governors in their provinces and the burgomasters in their communes the right to requisition, for the public benefit, wheat and flour, and potatoes, salt, sugar, and rice.

But it was soon realized that the situation could only be met by more extended measures. For it became apparent that the French and English would not be able to come to the rescue of Belgium and drive the Germans quickly out of the country, as had been fondly hoped and confidently expected. Indeed, it was the Allied armies that were being driven not only out of Belgium but farther and farther back in France. It was necessary to undertake measures, if possible, to pro-

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vide for an introduction of food from outside sources.

THE FIRST ORGANIZATION FOR RELIEF OF THE BELGIANS.

It was necessary to have recourse to some powerful neutral help. Belgium, and particularly Brussels, has always had its American colony. And it was to these Americans that Belgium turned for help. Many members of the colony left as soon as they could, but some, headed by Minister Brand Whitlock, remained. When the Belgian government left Brussels for Antwerp, and later for Le Havre, part of the diplomatic corps followed it but a smaller part stayed in Brussels to occupy a most peculiar position for the rest of the war. Mr. Whitlock elected to stay. It was a fortunate election for the Belgians.

When the American expatriates in Belgium who wished to leave applied to Minister Whitlock for help, he called to his assistance certain American engineers and business men then resident in Brussels, notably Messrs. Daniel Heineman, Millard Shaler, and William Hulse. He had also the very effective help of his First Secretary of Legation, Mr. Hugh Gibson, later Minister to Poland. These men were able to arrange the financial difficulties of the fleeing Americans despite closed banks, disappearing currency, and general financial paralysis. When this was finished they readily turned to the work of helping the Belgians.

THE FIRST ATTEMPTS TO GET FOOD FROM OUTSIDE.

Their first effort, in coöperation with the burgomaster of Brussels and a group of Brussels business men, was the formation of a Central Committee of Assistance and Provisioning under the patronage of the ministers of the United States and Spain (Mr. Whitlock and the Marqués de Villalobar). The field of this committee was at first limited to Brussels and the communes immediately adjacent to it. But it was soon enlarged, and the committee correspondingly reorganized to cover the whole country. Finding that the shifting about over the land of the rapidly disappearing food stocks of

the country and the special assistance of the destitute and out of work must give way to a more radical relief, since the destruction of factories, the cessation of the incoming of raw materials and the export of manufactures had already thrown thousands of men out of employment, this committee resolved to approach the Germans for permission to attempt to bring in food supplies from outside the country.



HERBERT HOOVER

Mr. Herbert C. Hoover a distinguished mining engineer, residing in London when he organized the Commission for Relief in Belgium.

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Burgomaster Max wrote on September 7 to Major General Lüttwitz, the German military governor of Brussels, requesting permission to arrange for the import of foodstuffs through the Holland-Belgium border. The city authorities of Charleroi also began negotiations with the German authorities in their province (Hainaut) to the same end, but little attention was paid to these requests. Therefore, the Americans of the committee decided, as neutrals, to take up personally with the German military authorities the matter of arranging imports.

PERMISSION TO IMPORT FOOD IS FINALLY OBTAINED.

A general permission for the importation of foodstuffs into Belgium by way of the Dutch frontier was finally obtained from the German authorities, together with their guarantee that all such imported food would be entirely free from requisition by the German army. Also, a special permission was accorded to Mr. Shaler to go to Holland, and, if necessary, to England to try to arrange for obtaining and transporting to Belgium certain kinds and quantities of foodstuffs. But no money could be sent out of Belgium to pay for them, except a first small amount which Mr. Shaler was allowed to take with him.

In Holland, Mr. Shaler found the Dutch government quite willing to allow foodstuffs to pass through Holland for Belgium, but it asked him to try and arrange to find the supplies in England. Holland already saw that she would need to hold all of her food for her own people. So Mr. Shaler went on to England.

MR. HERBERT HOOVER BECOMES INTERESTED IN THE PROBLEM.

Here he tried to interest influential Americans in Belgium's great need and, through Mr. Edgar Rickard, an American engineer, he was introduced to Mr. Herbert Hoover, then the leading American engineer in London, who lent a sympathetic ear to the story of the situation in the heroic but despairing land across the Channel. This sympathetic listening meant for Mr. Hoover the almost complete surrender of all his personal interests for his now famous four and a half years of successful endeavor to save Belgium from starvation. It meant the organization and enormous undertaking of the Commission for Relief in Belgium.

Mr. Hoover was already conspicuous in relief work, as he had been the organizer and head of a special organization called the American Relief Committee, created in London for the purpose of assisting and repatriating the 150,000 American citizens who found themselves stranded in Europe at the outbreak of the war. His sympathetic

and successful work in looking after the needs of these stranded Americans recommended him as the logical head for the new and greater philanthropic undertaking. He was asked, therefore, by Ambassador Page and the Belgian authorities to organize and begin immediately the work of the Commission.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE COMMISSION FOR RELIEF IN BELGIUM.

This was far from being a simple task; an account of the diplomatic negotiations alone would require more pages than those which can be given to this whole article. In addition there were the arrangements for financing the work, for the sufficient and safe transportation overseas and through Holland, for coöperation with the internal Belgian relief committees, and for the full protection from German seizure or interference of the food inside the occupied territory. The principal things quickly effected by Mr. Hoover and his associates, however, may be summed up as follows: first, a formal organization of the Commission as a strictly neutral body, under the chairmanship of Mr. Hoover and the patronage of the American, Spanish, and Dutch ministers in Brussels, the American minister in the Hague, and the American, Spanish, and Dutch ambassadors in London and Berlin, with offices in New York, London, Rotterdam, and Brussels, staffed by Americans; second, formal permission by the Allied and German governments for the continuing importation of large quantities of foodstuffs and clothing from England, America, and elsewhere through Holland into Belgium, with guarantees of unmolested passage over the sea of the food ships of the Commission displaying the Commission's special flag and markings; third, guarantees of the non-requisitioning of any of these supplies by the Germans; fourth, a regular monthly subvention from the English and French governments to pay for part of the supplies (these subventions were made entirely by the United States government after it came into the war); for the rest of the money needed, namely, that for the purely benevolent supplying of the



PACKING SHOES FOR BELGIUM IN THE COMMISSION WAREHOUSE

Belgium produces little leather and when imports were cut off there was great need of foot wear of all sizes. The Commission asked for both new and partly worn shoes. The donations were sent to the Commission warehouses in Newark and carefully examined. Those which could do any service were packed and sent across the ocean.



PACKING CLOTHING IN THE WAREHOUSE AT NEWARK

The request for clothing for the Belgians brought ready response, and hundreds of thousands of excellent garments were sent, many practically as good as new. Some thoughtless people, however, sent evening dresses and various items of discarded finery which were worse than useless. The garments were examined and sorted in the warehouse at Newark and those of any value were carefully packed.

All pictures by Courtesy of Commission for Relief in Belgium.

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destitute Belgians with sufficient food to keep them alive, the Commission was to appeal to the charity of the world.

THE COMMISSION GRADUALLY ASSUMED CERTAIN DIPLOMATIC FUNCTIONS.

All these required diplomatic discussion and action, which continued through the four years and a half of the Commission's work, and a constant

ted in our expectations—a major crisis once a month and a minor crisis once a week.

As the work progressed the attitude of the Allied governments became more and more clear-cut as to the guarantees they demanded that the Commission should secure from the German government. As there could be no diplomatic negotiations between the



THE ROTTERDAM OFFICE OF THE COMMISSION

The offices of the Commission in Rotterdam were in this building. It soon outgrew these rather narrow quarters, and some temporary buildings were constructed to house the overflow. To this modest building came letters, telegrams, and documents from every part of the world. The Commission was in one aspect of its work an immense trading corporation.

readjustment and wise handling of financial matters made necessary by the ever-increasing cost of food and transportation and the increasing need of the Belgians, to whose numbers were added early in 1915, all the people in occupied Northern France. The Commission had also constant difficulty in its relations with the German military and quasi-civil authorities in Belgium and France. Indeed, there was never a moment in the whole history of the Commission when it had not to face pressing and serious problems and difficulties connected with its work. We expected—and were rarely disappoint-

warring countries, the necessities of the case compelled the Commission to be the diplomatic go-between, and it became practically, although not nominally, endowed with a certain diplomatic standing of its own. The "passports," or personal certificates carried by its members, had a large validity at borders and inside of Belgium, Holland, England, and France.

THE ALLIED GOVERNMENTS REQUIRE CERTAIN GUARANTEES.

The special pressure of the Allied governments on the Commission grew out of the attitude of the British Admiralty. The Admiralty was doing

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its best to make more and more effective its blockade of Germany. It demanded that not only should the Commission have guarantees, and see that they were lived up to, that the Germans would take none of the imported supplies, but that none of the native grown crops of Belgium should be seized by the Germans either to be

duced in the occupied territory, this to be replaced by the food imported by the Commission. During the period of the actual invasion, and for some time after it, the Germans seized all the food in Belgium and Northern France that they could find, both for use of their armies and also to send into Germany.



ONE OF THE EARLY RELIEF SHIPS ENTERING PORT

The Hannah first crossed in December, 1914, carrying a load of flour contributed largely by the millers of Kansas. Note the pennants, the long banner with red letters along the side and the flag mentioned in the text. The striped balls on the masts were introduced later as the danger from air-craft was not yet important.

sent into Germany for its civilians or to be used by the German forces in the occupied territories. It was bad enough, said the Admiralty, that the Germans should be relieved of the responsibility of feeding the Belgians and French in the occupied territory—a responsibility, by the way, which the Germans would under no circumstances have assumed; they repeatedly declared that the shut-in people would be allowed to starve unless the English would break the blockade and allow the Belgians and French to freely import food—but it was impossible that the Germans should be allowed to use all or even any part of the food pro-

Near the end of January, 1915, therefore, Mr. Hoover was summoned to a meeting with Mr. Lloyd George, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, and other British government officials, and told that the work of the Commission could not go on unless additional guarantees were obtained from the German government assigning to the exclusive use of the Belgians all the grain and meat produced in the occupied territory. After a great struggle the Germans finally gave, in July, the required guarantees. It then became the duty of the Commission and its protecting ministers in Belgium to see that these guarantees were lived up to. It was not

easy to hold the Germans to their agreement, for although the chief authorities took a correct attitude and issued the proper orders, there were constant infractions by lesser officials and small groups of soldiers. On the whole, however, it can be said truthfully that practically none of the imported food, from the beginning, and but a very small fraction of the native food, after July 1915, fell into the hands of the Germans.

A GERMAN GROUP ALWAYS OPPOSED THE COMMISSION.

But if there was an element in England that always more or less strongly opposed the work of the Commission, there was an even stronger group in Germany that was always trying to drive the Commission out of Belgium. This group was led by zu Reventlow, the chief of the German jingoes, whose constant cry was: "Kick these American spies out; we have in our hands ten million French and Belgian hostages; say to the Allied governments that these people may eat what food they now have on hand, but that after it is gone they shall not have a morsel unless the blockade is broken and French, Belgians, and Germans alike are allowed to import food from overseas."

This effort of zu Reventlow and his brother jingoes came to a head in August, 1916. On August 3 a great conference was called in Berlin to discuss the whole matter of the relief work in Belgium and Northern France. It was attended by representatives of the General Staff, Governor General von Bissing's German government in Belgium, the Foreign Office, the Minister of the Interior, and other government departments especially interested in the matter.

THE GERMAN FOES OF THE COMMISSION ARE DEFEATED.

The Commission had just before this been attempting to get the German authorities in Belgium and North France to permit it to buy and import from Holland certain special foods, especially fats and dairy products, which were badly needed to keep the children in the occupied territory alive

and in growing condition. They were already showing, by a wide-spread retardation in growth and development, the serious effects of having to live on war bread, dried foods, and an insufficiency of protein and special foods adapted to their powers of digestion. As no satisfaction in regard to this request had been obtained from the local German authorities, Mr. Hoover and I went to Berlin to carry personally the Commission's request to the Imperial Government.

We arrived in Berlin just as the great conference, which had been called to settle the fate of all the relief work was meeting. We were not, of course, allowed to attend it but we could work on the outside. The final decision was reached, after bitter debate and a first victory for the jingoes, to allow the Commission's work to go on. We were able, also, to get a reluctant agreement for the importation from Holland of a certain amount of additional food, especially for the 600,000 suffering children of North France.

TWO DISTINCT PHASES OF THE COMMISSION'S WORK.

I could go on, for many pages, with illustrations of the constant effort which had to be made by the C.R.B. to maintain its humanitarian work. I must try now to explain some of the methods and details of the actual feeding of the ten million imprisoned people. Before the food could be distributed to the people in Belgium and North France, it had to be found, bought or obtained by gift, and transported from points all over the world, for the Commission went into the primary markets of the world for all the principal kinds of food it imported. And before it could be bought and transported, money had to be obtained.

I have already spoken of the government subventions made by France, England, and America. These were nominally in the form of loans to the Belgian government, but were all put directly in the hands of the Commission, and expended solely by it and under its exclusive responsibility. This money was primarily for the provisioning of the people in Belgium and Nor-

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thern France who could pay, in local money, for it. This local money could not be sent out of the occupied territory and therefore could not be used by the Commission for outside purchases. It practically served as a sort of obligation from these people to the Belgian government. But there were many persons out of work and destitute who had to be fed on a strictly

with it unless the wheat or flour were being brought into the country. Then, second, and more in correspondence with our general understanding of "relief," was the work of providing *secours* directly by charity for the large and ever-increasing number of the actually destitute, who not only had to have the flour brought in but actually given to them.



ONE OF THE SOUP LINES IN BRUSSELS

This former dance hall in the Rue Blaes was transformed into a canteen, to which the hungry came to be fed. There were twenty-one of these in Brussels alone and fifty thousand people of that city depended upon them for their daily food. Similar sights could be seen in every town or village in Belgium.

charity basis. There were, indeed, all the time, two fairly distinct phases of the Commission's work which should be kept clearly in mind in any consideration of the "relief of Belgium." First, there was the continuing *ravitaillement* of the whole country, or bringing in of certain food staples, as flour (or wheat), dried peas and beans, lard and bacon, etc., in quantities which, added to the limited native production would provide a minimum living ration of these necessary staples for *everybody*. No matter how much money, in Belgium, baron this or banker that had, he could get no bread

THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND THE UNITED STATES GIVE MOST.

In addition to having money for the general *ravitaillement* of the country, which might, however, be paid back some day, it was necessary to have money to be spent for food to be given away. It was for this, the *secours* side of the Commission's undertaking, that it appealed to the charity of the world. Practically all of this charity came from America and the British Empire, although there were gifts of some importance from half a dozen other countries. The total amount of money, food, and clothing thus received was

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of the value of approximately fifty million dollars. This does not include the large gifts made inside of Belgium itself by municipalities, societies, and private individuals. Of these the Commission has no record, but they were many hundred million francs.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE DIFFERENT COUNTRIES COMPARED.

The first public appeals made in October, 1914, by Mr. Hoover on account of the newly organized Commission, and by Minister Whitlock through President Wilson, resulted in the swift organization of Belgian relief committees all over America. Similar public appeals made in England and throughout the British Empire resulted in similar activity. The various British appeals were all consolidated in April, 1915, by the formation of a single great benevolent organization called the "National Committee for Relief in Belgium," with the Lord Mayor of London as active Chairman. This Committee conducted an impressive continuous campaign of propaganda and solicitation of funds, not only in the United Kingdom but, through affiliated organizations, in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, with the result of obtaining about \$16,000,000 with which to purchase food and clothing for the Belgian destitute. The overseas dominions did quite as well, in proportion to their population, in the race for giving as the English people at home, who were so much nearer the sights and sounds of Belgian distress. In fact, the "record" of all giving to Belgian relief is held by New Zealand, which from its population of 1,160,000 sent \$2,655,000, or a *per capita* average of \$2.29. Australia's charity amounted to \$1.34 *per capita*, Canada's 22 cents, and the United Kingdom's 9 cents. Contributions from the United States, as a whole, amounted to a little over 10 cents *per capita*, although the average for certain states or groups of states was much larger. California, for example, gave over 30 cents *per capita*.

THE AMERICAN COMMITTEE AT FIRST ASKS FOR FOOD AND CLOTHING.

In the United States the C.R.B. directly managed the campaign for

charity, using its New York office as organizing and receiving headquarters. The work was carried on partly by definitely organized state committees in thirty-seven states, and by scattering local committees in the others. Many of the state committees organized local committees in almost every county and city in their states. Ohio, for example, had some form of local organization in eighty out of the eighty-eight counties in the state, and California had ninety local county and city committees all reporting to the state committee.

The American campaign for help for the Belgians was different from the English one, in that in England and the British dominions the appeal was made almost exclusively for money with which to buy food, while in the United States the call was made, at first, chiefly for outright gifts of food, the Commission offering to serve, in connection with this American benevolence, as a great collecting, transporting and distributing agency. This resulted in the accumulation of large quantities of foodstuffs of many kinds, much of it in small packages. Tens of thousands of these packages were sent over to Belgium, but the cry came back from the Commission's workers there that food in this shape was very difficult to handle in any systematic way. It was already evident that consignments in bulk of a few kinds of staple and concentrated foods were needed. These could be shipped in considerable lots to the various principal distribution centres in Belgium, and thence in lesser lots to the secondary or local centres. There they were handed out on a definite ration plan.

STATE AND ORGANIZATION FOOD SHIPS ARE SENT.

Some of the states in America, and two or three large organizations, as the Rockefeller Foundation and a group of great millers in the Northwest, recognized from the very beginning the advantage of pooling the individual gifts of food and of buying other food at wholesale, and in bulk, with the money contributed. So there began to cross the ocean as early as December, 1914,



UNLOADING A SHIP DIRECTLY INTO A BARGE

Very often the ships were unloaded directly into great barges—some of 1000 tons—which were towed through the main canals into the interior of Belgium. Several of these barges were towed by one of the Commission's thirty-five tugs. Other barges are waiting to be loaded in order that they may start upon their journey.



UNLOADING A RELIEF SHIP AT ROTTERDAM

The port of Rotterdam is fitted with every convenience for loading and unloading. The great crane on the right is swinging sixteen sacks of flour to the platform from which they will be taken by the men in the foreground. Another crane on the left is about to lift a similar load from the hold where another crew has placed it within the rope net. Often work went on all night.

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"state food ships" each loaded to capacity with the foodstuffs given outright or bought with the money contributed by the citizens of the respective states. For example, California and Kansas each sent such a food ship, in December. In January and March, 1915, two "Massachusetts Relief Ships," the *Harpalyce* (sunk by torpedo or mine on a later relief voyage) and the *Lynorta*, sailed. Oregon and California together sent the *Cran-*

gium, and the actual distribution of his own relief cargo. His good Samaritan ship was sunk by a German submarine on her return trip but fortunately the philanthropist was not on her.

OTHER FUNDS RAISED BY VARIOUS GROUPS IN THE UNITED STATES.

In the light of these early experiences the Commission soon changed the form of its appeals and asked that gifts be made chiefly in money to be expended



AFTER THE CHRISTMAS SHIP HAD COME

A charity which appealed to many was the "Christmas ship" loaded not with the bare necessities of life, but with toys and other trifles, calculated to bring joy to the hearts of children. The great majority of the Belgian children have missed most of the joys of childhood during these hard years of German occupation of their country.

ley in January, 1915, loaded with food and clothing. And several other similar state ships were sent at later dates.

The Rockefeller Foundation's gift of a million dollars was used to load wholly or in part five relief ships, and the "Millers' Belgian Relief" movement, organized and carried through by the editor of the *Northwestern Miller*, Mr. W. C. Edgar, resulted in the contribution of a full cargo of flour valued at over \$450,000 which left Philadelphia for Rotterdam in February, 1915, in the steamer *South Point*. The cargo was accompanied by the organizer of the charity, who saw personally the working of the methods of the C.R.B. inside of Bel-

by the Commission itself for staple foods in wholesale lots in the primary markets of the world, with all the advantages in economy, selection of food most needed and convenience of ultimate distribution, which the constantly perfecting organization of the Commission made possible. Direct gifts of new and second-hand clothing, however, continued to be asked for and obtained in large quantities.

Altogether the American gifts of food, clothing and money for Belgian relief reached a total value of about \$30,000,000. Apart from the amounts contributed by the various states under the stimulus of the work of the organized state and local committees, certain

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notable special gifts may be briefly mentioned. The Rockefeller Foundation's early gift of a million dollars has already been referred to; later, some additional hundreds of thousands came from this source. The mining engineers of the country, as a special recognition of the mining engineer at the head of the Commission, organized the "Belgian Kiddies, Ltd.," a corporation

thousands of dollars from children and their parents all over the country.

Other notable collections made for the general relief work were those of the American Daughters of the Revolution of \$150,000, the Allied Bazaar of New York of \$115,000, and other bazaars held in San Francisco, Chicago, and Boston. Besides, several large gifts, notably one of \$210,000, another



A CORNER OF A WAREHOUSE IN ROTTERDAM

The Commission's immense warehouses in Rotterdam were busy places. They contained food of many varieties from all parts of the world, clothing, shoes and hundreds of other things. The German administration required that every garment be carefully examined and every scrap of written or printed matter be removed. Failure to observe this rule would have made trouble not only for the Commission but also for the innocent recipient.

for the raising of money to feed 10,000 Belgian children for one year. Their contribution was about a quarter of a million dollars. Other special funds collected and given especially for the feeding of children were one of about \$70,000 from the New York Chamber of Commerce, the Cardinal Gibbons Fund of \$77,000 from the Catholic children of America; the Dollar Christmas Fund of nearly \$100,000, organized by Mr. Henry Clews, and finally the Literary Digest Fund of more than half a million dollars collected by the efforts of Mr. R. J. Cuddihy and the *Literary Digest* in sums from pennies to

of \$200,000, and several of \$100,000, were received from individual donors of large means.

SOME INTERESTING STORIES OF SACRIFICE AND DEVOTION.

But the great majority of the gifts made to the Commission through state committees or through special fund organizations, or directly to the New York office, were in small sums coming from millions of individuals. And it is a beautiful thing that it has been so. It would be interesting indeed to know just how many of the 105,000,000 inhabitants of the United States have contributed personally to Belgian relief.

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We can never know this with any approach to accuracy, but we do know enough to say that the givers number several millions.

Thousands of incidents, pathetic, inspiring, noble, connected with the giving, clamor for the telling. A number of little girls in a charity home in Cooperstown, N.Y., sent \$1 each month. These little girls were rewarded by a few pennies for any particular excellence in their tasks, making beds, sweeping, etc., and for months they gave enough pennies earned in this way to send this dollar for the children of Belgium.

A little country school near Montara Lighthouse, on the Pacific Coast, gave its playtime to knitting woolen caps and mittens and mufflers, and then the school children brought pennies from their little banks, and jars of fruit and jam, and the girl school teacher put them all, pennies, jam, and mittens, into her one-horse buggy and drove forty miles through a storm to convey these more-than-royal gifts to the California Committee's office in San Francisco.

A druggist in a small town in Indiana sent one dollar a week for more than two years; a country grocer sent, each week, a fixed percentage of his profits; a man without money, but with a gold watch left as a family heirloom, sent it in to be sold for the feeding of a Belgian family.

PATHETIC AND AMUSING INCIDENTS IN THE DAY'S WORK.

Over in Rotterdam and in Belgium, too, we had our glimpses of the incidents of giving. Three fascinating old-fashioned wedding dresses draped on forms stood for a long time just inside the entrance of the great Antwerp clothing *ouvroir*. These dresses were rescued by Mme. Osterrieth from the cases of used clothing that came from America. She did not let them go to the benches to be torn apart and made over, but kept them intact to speak their message of sympathy to everyone who saw them, and especially to the eight hundred saved women and girls who found employment in the *ouvroir*, in working over the masses of gift

clothing, new and old, that went to the share of Antwerp.

In the pockets of many of the garments sent over were found messages of sympathy and cheer. Other messages admonished the finders to see in these gifts the hand of God, and to "get right with Him." In the pocket of a fancy waistcoat was a quarter, wrapped in a bit of paper, on which was written: "Have a drink with me. Good luck!" In many of the parcels were English Bibles, the good souls who sent them not realizing that few Belgians can read English. In fact, the enclosing of messages and books caused us much trouble, for the Germans allowed no scrap of paper, printed or written, to enter Belgium uncensored. We later had to unpack all the clothing in Rotterdam and go through it carefully to remove all notes and books.

Volumes would not contain all the incidents, but a page of the incidents speaks volumes. Tears and smiles and heart thrills and thanksgiving for the revelation of the human love of humanity in these terrible days of a depressing pessimism. The giving was so worth while; worth while to Belgium, saved from starvation of the body; worth while to America, saved from starvation of the soul.

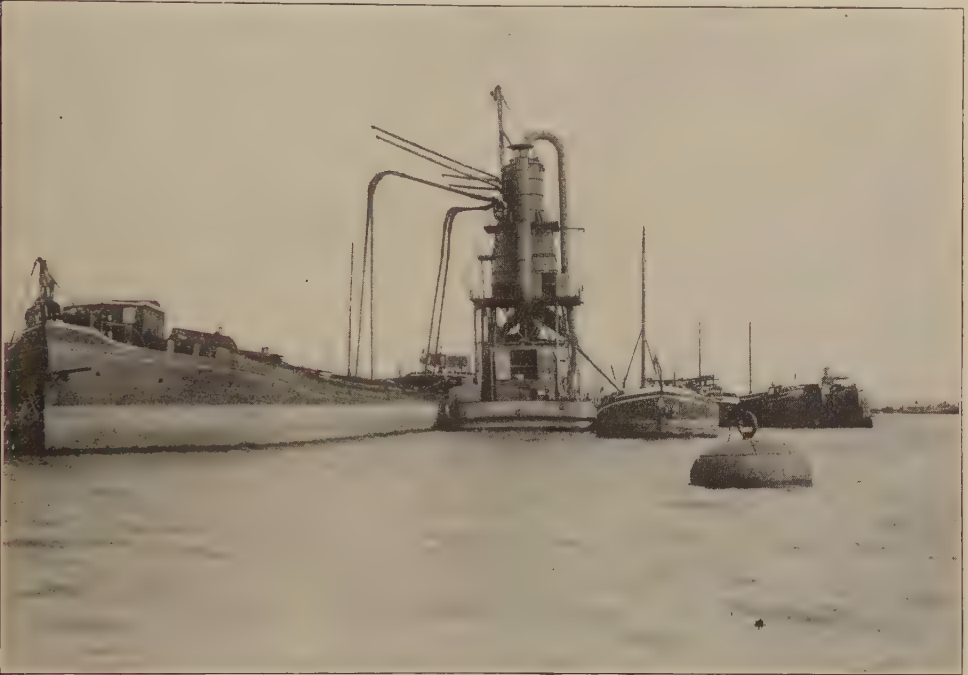
THE SOURCE OF SUPPLIES FOR BELGIAN RELIEF.

Practically all of the food for imprisoned Belgium and North France was transported across the ocean, some of it even across oceans. Rice from Rangoon, corn from Argentina, beans from Manchuria, wheat and meat and fats from America; and all, with the other things of the regular programme, such as sugar, condensed milk, coffee and cocoa, salt, salad oil, yeast, dried fish, etc., in great quantities, were brought across wide oceans, through the dangerous mine-strewn Channel, and landed safely and regularly in Rotterdam, to be there speedily transferred from ocean vessels into canal boats and urged on into Belgium and Northern France, and from these taken again by railroad cars and horse-drawn carts to the communal warehouses and soup kitchens; and always and ever,

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through all the months, to get there *in time*—these were the buying and transporting and distributing problems of the Commission. One hundred thousand tons a month from the world over in great shiploads to Rotterdam; one hundred thousand tons a month thence in ever more and more divided quantities to the province and district storehouses, to the regional storehouses

a house flag 12 by 15 feet; a pair of deck cloths, 12 by 50 feet, stretched across the deck face up, one forward and one aft; and two huge red- and white-striped signal balls, eight feet in diameter, attached at the tops of two masts. The balls and flat deck cloths were for the benefit of airplane pilots; the side cloths, pennants, and house flag were for sea raiders and sub-



DIVIDING THE LOAD OF A LARGE BARGE

Much grain was shipped loose, and was transferred to canal boats and barges by means of a grain elevator. Here we see a floating elevator which is sucking up the grain from a large boat and pouring it into one of the smaller barges which will go to some remote village along one of the smaller canals. This was ground at one of the mills controlled by the Commission.

and mills, to the communal centres, and finally to the mouths of the people. And all to be done speedily, regularly, and with the utmost economy; that was the Commission's "job," in which it must not fail.

HOW THE BELGIAN RELIEF SHIPS WERE MARKED.

The C.R.B. overseas ships, of which a fleet of about seventy were under charter, crossed the ocean under their own special flag and markings. Each ship carried a pair of great cloth banners, 9 by 100 feet, stretching along the hull on each side; also two 50-foot pennants flying from the mast head;

marines. All the flags and cloths were white, with the Commission's name or initials (C.R.B.) in great red letters on them.

Of the seven hundred and forty full ship cargoes and fifteen hundred part cargoes of relief food and clothing transported across the sea during the long period of the Commission's labors not more than twenty were totally or partially lost at sea. Most of the losses came from mines, a few from torpedoes fired by German submarines whose commanders either did not or would not recognize the C.R.B. markings displayed by the ships.

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ROTTERDAM ALWAYS A SCENE OF GREAT ACTIVITY.

Once in Rotterdam, the arrived ship became the centre of extreme activity. Time was the essence of all the Belgian relief work. Too often difficulties of overseas transportation meant delays in the arrival of the ships and these delays had to be offset as much as possible by speed in unloading and transshipping the cargoes at Rotterdam into the canal boats by which all the food was carried through Holland and into Belgium and into North France. The Commission had in continuous service a fleet of thirty-five tugs and nearly five hundred canal boats and barges of from 150 to 1000 tons capacity, most of them of 200 to 500 tons.

The Commission's Rotterdam staff made records in that famous harbor; no such speed of handling had been known there in good old Dutch days. Sometimes four or five ships would arrive at once; on June 1, 1916, 31,342 tons of Commission foodstuffs arrived. On a single day in October 1916, 19,557 tons of foodstuffs were started off for Belgium in the canal boats; this meant getting away nearly sixty loaded boats in one day.

THE CARGOES ARE FIRST LOADED IN STRINGS OF CANAL BOATS.

When loaded and ready for their journey the boats were arranged at Rotterdam in strings for towing. This towage was done chiefly by tugs under charter to the Commission. On certain canals, however, only horse or man towage was allowed, and as the Germans were constantly sweeping the country of horses, the pulling of the boats on these canals was done chiefly by men. From Rotterdam, then, the strings of boats would start over their first or main routes; via the Ghent Canal for Ghent, Bruges, Courtrai, Western Hainaut, Lille, and Valenciennes; via the Antwerp Canal for Antwerp, Brussels, Louvain, or for trans-shipment at these points to rail for Luxemburg and Northern France (except Lille and Valenciennes); or via the Liège Canal for Hasselt, Liège, Namur and Eastern Hainaut. The shortest distance for any of the boats

to travel from Rotterdam was that to Antwerp, about 88 miles; the longest, that to La Louvière, about 235 miles.

Each canal boat flew a large flag marked "Commission for Relief in Belgium," and its skipper was provided with a special pass issued by the German consulate in Rotterdam providing for the unmolested passage of the boat and cargo to its Belgian or French destination. The hold of each boat was closed and sealed and the cargo consigned to the American representative of the Commission stationed at destination. On arrival of the boat he examined the seals carefully to see that they had not been tampered with, then broke them, and checked off the cargo against bills of lading that had been sent ahead by military post, duplicates having also gone to the C.R.B. head office at Brussels and also being retained in Rotterdam. Every precaution was taken against seizure or robbery of the cargo while under way. The Americans were not allowed to accompany the boats, but otherwise they were allowed to control the boats and cargoes in every way their ingenuity could suggest. They could meet them at almost every point on their journey, and inspect them. In the Brussels office a large chart indicated the position every day of every moving boat.

DIFFICULTIES ARISING IN THE USE OF THE RAILWAYS.

But as abundant and widely ramifying as are the canals of Belgium they do not reach every town, and use had to be made of the railroads. The railways of Belgium are of two types: first, the regular standard gauge type, with heavy rails, and second, an interesting type of narrow gauge roads, with very light rails and ties, that wander over the land as if they were following cattle trails, and connect almost every small country village with the larger towns on the main railroads. Of course, the Germans had entire control of all these railroads (as they had, for that matter, of the canals) and used them constantly for military purposes. They did not use the canals so much. The distribution of the food supplies by the Commission by rail, therefore,

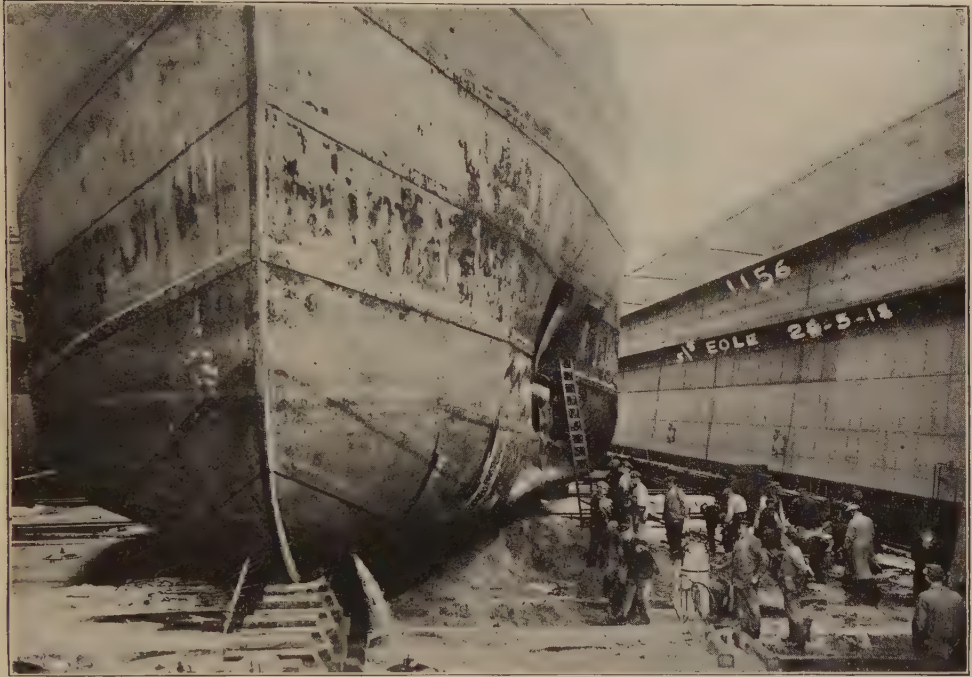
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suffered much more interruption and delay than its distribution by the water ways, but by a constant struggle with the German authorities the necessary train movements were kept up.

But even the extraordinarily elaborate net-work of railways in Belgium does not reach every town and village, and so a certain amount of distribution by horse-drawn carts had to

warehouses being protected by formal orders of the German Governor-General, as indicated by large placards put on the buildings—there came next the task of getting the food to the actual mouths of the people.

It is this part of the Commission's work which in the popular mind, both in Belgium and in America, was the principal part, and, indeed to many the



ONE OF THE SHIPS WHICH MET A MINE

About twenty cargoes of the Commission's supplies were wholly or partially lost at sea, on account of either mines or torpedoes. This is the ship, *Eole*, which struck a mine but nevertheless reached port. Some of the cargo is shown on the floor of the dry-dock, though of course it has been damaged by water.

be relied upon. No automotive vehicles were permitted by the Germans to be used in Belgium except their own and a restricted number of passenger automobiles for the necessary movement of the American relief workers. It was only with the greatest difficulty that this cartage could be managed, as the Germans were constantly requisitioning the horses both for their army and to send into Germany for use there.

THE FOOD FINALLY REACHES THE LOCAL WAREHOUSES.

With the supplies finally distributed to the central and local warehouses all over the country—the stocks in these

only work recognized. But none of it could have been done at all, that is, no food could have found its way to the mouths of the people without all of the elaborate arrangements, organization, and activities of the Commission outside of Belgium. Nevertheless, it is the final actual distribution to the people, the protection of the food from the ever-possible German seizure, the surmounting of the difficulties of carrying on the work in a land of warfare and military control, the scientific rationing, the methods of special charity, and the close interweaving of the relief work with that of the Belgians them-

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selves that make the story of the Commission's work inside of Belgium the most interesting part of the whole account.

THE PART OF THE BELGIANS IN THE RELIEF WORK.

First, the relations of the Commission and its workers to the Belgian relief organization and the Belgian people must be explained. Although the Belgians could do nothing to help in the outside part of the relief work they could and did take a very large part in the work inside the country. No less than twenty-five thousand Belgians were continuously connected with the enormous labor of the internal distribution of the food and clothing, and these workers were all bound together and controlled by an elaborate nation-wide volunteer organization. At the base of this national relief organization were 3,000 communal committees, one for every commune in the land; above them was a group of regional committees representing groups of neighboring communes; above them the provincial committees, one for each Belgian province, and finally at the top of the whole organization a strong national committee, the *Comité National*, called C. N. for short, just as the American Commission was always called C.R.B.

To define the special functions and position of each of the two parts of the combined relief organization and the general relations to be maintained between them, various formulations of agreement were drafted from time to time. The first written-out general scheme of organization bears date of December, 1914. Before that, had come an all-important meeting in London, in October, 1914, between Mr. Hoover and M. Francqui, the organizing and directing heads of the two groups, at which a general agreement as to fundamentals was reached.

In any complete history of the Commission's work these agreements with our Belgian co-workers must be fully given. No space for that is possible here. But certain essential points of the arrangements must be given in order that the important and delicate

position of the Americans working in Belgium can be in some measure understood.

THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE BELGIANS AND THE COMMISSION.

I quote from the "general scheme" of December, 1914, which was drafted chiefly to point out the position of the Commission's provincial representatives:

"As the *Comité National* will control its work through ten sub-committees, or *Comités Provinciaux*, each covering a province of Belgium [one province, Brabant, is subdivided for purposes of food administration into two, one being Greater Brussels, and the other all of Brabant province outside of Brussels] and each having its own president and working organization, the Commission for Relief in Belgium proposes to station an authorized delegate (with one or more assistants) in each province, at the point where the principal office of the *Comité Provincial*, with its president, is located. The *Comité National* will also station a delegate or two delegates, as the case may require, at the same office, who will represent the central organization at Brussels.

"The head delegate of the C.R.B., the delegate of the C. N., and the President of the C. P. will form the three principals for the affairs of the relief work in the province.

"But as it has been clearly stipulated that the grain or other merchandise introduced into Belgium by the C.R.B. is under the responsibility of their Excellencies the Ministers of the United States and of Spain, who are the protectors of the Commission, it is essential that the merchandise remain the property of the C.R.B. until the same is distributed to the communes. . . .

Therefore, in spite of the fact that the merchandise may be entrusted for handling to the Provincial Committee . . . the delegate of the C.R.B. is still responsible for its safety until it is delivered to the communes."

THE TASKS OF THE AMERICANS ENGAGED IN THE RELIEF WORK.

As mentioned at the beginning of this account, the total number of Americans representing the C.R.B. inside

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of Belgium was never more than forty-five at one time; the Germans constantly tried to make us get on with even a smaller number, putting twenty-five as a desirable maximum. From this small group there had to be manned the Brussels central office headed by the director for all of Belgium, and a smaller office in the capital of each province. These men in the

in no way contravened the general principles and plans of the Commission regarding fair distribution; they visited all directions of the Provincial Committee as to milling, storage, distribution, etc.; they checked up all shipments coming into their provinces to see that they corresponded as to weight, quantity, and character with the advices from Rotterdam; kept the Brus-



A GROUP OF AMERICANS WORKING FOR THE COMMISSION

This is a typical group of relief workers, though perhaps a little older than the average. It includes three men from New York, and one each from Massachusetts, Tennessee, Ohio and Virginia. Some were Rhodes Scholars, and others professional or business men, who gave up their own occupations to assist in the task of feeding Belgium.

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province were known as provincial delegates, and were the ones who came into most intimate personal contact with the people, as they were constantly moving over their respective provinces visiting the regional and communal Belgian committees, the storehouses, kitchens, and soup-lines. The actual manual distribution of the supplies was done by the Belgian committees with their thousands of helpers, but the American provincial delegates were responsible for the protection of the supplies from possible German seizure, and for seeing that all plans proposed by the Provincial Committee

sels office informed constantly and in utmost detail of all receipts, movements, and distribution of supplies in each province; they took regular monthly inventories of all stocks on hand, made representation of all general and special needs of each region and people, saw to an efficient inspection and control of the use and abuse of the food, even to the degree, if necessary, of using their power of absolute prohibition of movement of the food stocks under their control to correct abuses.

These are the bald and meagre statements of the responsibility, duties, and

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activities of the American delegates in Belgium. But no statement could ever be drafted that would set out in full what their work and behavior were to be, what delicacies of situation were to be met, what discretion was to be exercised, what kind of extraordinary experience they were to meet and meet acceptably for the sake of maintenance of the lives of Belgian men, women, and children, and the honor of American humanitarian achievement.

PERSONALITY OF THE MEN ENGAGED IN THE WORK.

Let us turn to some details of the work, to some of its difficulties, and some of its successes and satisfactions. But, first, just a few things concerning the *personnel* of the Commission.

Who were these young—and a few older—Americans? How were they selected? What did their personality mean to the Belgians, and what did Belgium mean to them?

The total roll of these men, successive resident directors, assistant directors, head delegates, assistants and all, makes a list of hardly two hundred. Other men of the Commission were busy; did as faithful and as important work in the Rotterdam, London, and New York offices; but it was the men privileged to work inside of Belgium and France who had the personal experiences they can tell to their wondering children in future years; who lived something that already seems almost unreal, almost impossible.

The few older men of the Commission—from among whom most of the directors and executive officers of the New York, London, Brussels, and Rotterdam offices were drawn, although some took their places among the younger men as province delegates—were successful engineers (Mr. Hoover drew his volunteers first of all from his engineer friends), half a dozen college professors, a lawyer of large practice, two clergymen of practical turn of mind, a well-known explorer and sportsman, a dietetic expert, an architect of high repute, a magazine editor, a famous forester, a stockbroker, a consul, an expert in children's diseases; altogether a wholesome variety!

YOUNG COLLEGE MEN MAKE UP THE MAJORITY.

But the majority of the men, especially those who worked in Belgium and the occupied portion of France, were young men, representatives of an American type. They came from forty-five different American colleges and universities, more from Harvard than any other one. Twenty of them had been selected by their colleges and their states to be Rhodes Scholars in Oxford University. These twenty had been thus already selected on a basis of youthful scholarship, energy, general capacity, and good-fellowship. They had not, however, been selected on a basis of experience in business or—least of all—relief work. And the remainder of the two hundred were selected by us on about the same general grounds, adding the more special one of a usable, or buddingly usable, knowledge of the French language. Several could read German, a few speak it. That was also useful. But the Commission asked primarily for intelligence, character, youthful vigor, and enthusiasm, rather than specific attainments or experience as qualifications in the workers needed.

Two things most of these men had that I have not mentioned. But they were two important things, namely idealism and a sense of humor; a supporting idealism and a saving sense of humor. Curtis, the first of our Brussels-Holland couriers, needed these qualities to stand his seventeen arrests by German sentries, and Warren his three days in a military prison at Antwerp, and yet keep unconcernedly on with their work. Curtis' sense of humor was fortunately well-matched by a German's—a single German's—when the young American, a little annoyed by an unusual number of stoppages on the road one day, handed his pass to the tenth man who demanded it with a swift, highly uncomplimentary personal allusion to his tormentor, in pure Americanese. The sentry handed it back with a dry, "Much obliged, the same to you." He was probably a formerly-of-Chicago reservist who knew the argot.

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THE DAILY RATIONS ISSUED TO THE BELGIAN PEOPLE.

The miscellaneous food was distributed from the communal warehouses and the bread from bakeries under complete control of the relief organization on a rationing system which provided for each head of a Belgian family or unattached individual having two ra-

who had no money. The number dependent on outright charity naturally increased during the period of the occupation, until at the time of the withdrawal of the American workers in April, 1917, 3,000,000 of the 7,300,000 Belgians imprisoned in their country were receiving all or the greater part of their daily food on charity.



THE MESSAGERIE VAN GAND IN ANTWERP

There was little traffic in or out of Antwerp, during the war, and this forwarding station was transformed into a great kitchen. Here soup for 50,000 destitute was made daily. The signs which indicated the destination of the goods in happier days still remain.

tion cards, one for bread exclusively and the other for the various staples, as bacon, lard, rice, dried peas and beans, and condensed milk, imported by the C.R.B. Certain local supplies as potatoes and meat (when available at all) were also rationed, while miscellaneous vegetables and fruit were mostly left to the open markets after the communal committees had acquired what was necessary for the communal kitchen and soup-lines, which provided the destitute who otherwise could have obtained none of them. The ration cards limited the amounts that could be obtained of the rationed supplies, whether they were directly paid for by those who had money to buy them or received as charity by those

The daily ration varied from time to time depending on the kinds and amounts of food available but it ran on the average about as follows: war bread (made from wheat milled in mills, entirely controlled by the relief organization, at from 80% to 97%, mixed with a varying percentage of corn-flour, rye-flour, barley-flour, and rice-flour), 12 ounces; bacon, trifle over 1 ounce; lard, about $\frac{2}{3}$ ounce; rice, $2\frac{1}{8}$ ounces; dried beans and peas, $1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces; cerealine (crushed corn), $1\frac{2}{3}$ ounces; potatoes, $10\frac{1}{2}$ ounces; brown sugar, trifle over $\frac{2}{3}$ ounce; condensed milk, varying small amount. This ration is capable of producing about 2,000 utilizable calories (or energy units). Physiologists agree that

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3,000 calories are desirable to keep a person engaged in light work in a good condition of health and strength. But most of the Belgians had no work to do.

EXCEPTIONS MADE TO THE REGULAR RATION FOR SPECIAL REASONS.

Certain additions to the ration were made for the few "heavy workers" (those in the coal mines, for example), and modifications of it were made for

individual properly provided with a soup-card obtained once a day a pint of thick soup and ten ounces of bread, with some added food, enough for a day's maintenance.

The most conspicuous revelation of the degree to which a great portion of the Belgian people was dependent on outright charity for their daily bread was that afforded by the long "soup-



A PRIMARY SCHOOL AIDED BY THE COMMISSION

An important part of the Commission's activity was the attempt to see that every Belgian child received at least one good meal a day. This is a view of a primary school at which the midday meal was furnished by the Commission. There were several thousand of such schools. Evidently some of the children are unaccustomed to the camera.

children who received more milk and sugar, some cocoa, when possible, and less bread and potatoes. The potatoes could rarely be provided up to full ration figure and the rice could sometimes be increased. Those who could pay were able to add some vegetables and fruit, and, rather irregularly, meat. So some had more than 2,000 calories value of food a day but some had less. As the actually destitute had little or no coal or wood with which to do any cooking most of them obtained their food ready cooked at the *soupes* maintained in every commune by the relief organizations. At these *soupes* each

lines" visible in every hamlet and every section of every town and city in the land. Over a million and a half people were standing every day in these lines by the end of 1916. In Antwerp, proud and wealthy sea-port and home of rich Flemish burghers, one-half of the whole population was on the soup-lines in April, 1917.

THE BABIES AND THE CHILDREN AND THEIR FOOD.

In addition to the systematized general rationing of the whole population and the special care of the destitute by communal kitchens and *soupes*, the relief of Belgium had many special fea-



THE SCHOOL COLONY AT SCHOOTEN, NEAR ANTWERP

The question of the care of the orphans of the war was important. In general these were gathered in "school colonies" under supervision of volunteer workers who looked after them and taught them. This photograph from the Comité Provincial shows one of these colonies with a part of the staff housed in Kasteel "De Wyngaard."



ANOTHER SCHOOL COLONY IN THE SAME NEIGHBORHOOD

This is "School Colony Fordenstein" in the same neighborhood, where some of the orphans of the province were housed. Many owners of country houses offered them to the Comités for this use. This picture, made in winter, shows the children being taken out for necessary exercise. None of the war charities was more deserving than this, undertaken by the Belgians themselves and manned almost exclusively by volunteer workers.

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tures; that is, it took various special forms adapted to special needs. Help was extended in special ways to the mutilated soldiers left in the country after the invasion passed on to the west; to distressed special groups as artisans, artists, and professional men and other "ashamed poor" never before dependent on charity and too proud to stand in the soup-lines; to the convents and priests and sisters; to farmers needing help to restore their wrecked buildings so that they might help produce food for the whole people; to young mothers and women about to become mothers, and above all, to the babies and children.

The story of the saving of the children of Belgium is one that in itself needs a whole volume for the telling. There was developed a system of supplementary school meals whereby over a million children of school age had their insufficient home feeding eked out by a simple specially prepared daily meal given in the school room. For weak children and babies, special canteens were established where the little ones got not only special food (milk, cocoa, sugar, etc.) but also medical attention. In the province of Liège alone there were 111 special charities for children faithfully looked after by 1500 Belgian volunteer-workers who gave all their time, day after day, throughout the whole long period of the occupation. In Brussels the famous "Little Bees" took care of practically every child needing help in the whole great city of nearly a million inhabitants. Countesses and working girls labored side by side as equals in this democratizing work of charity and love.

WHAT AN AMERICAN WOMAN THOUGHT OF THE BELGIAN WOMEN.

But it is impossible to tell the whole story. As my wife, Charlotte Kellogg, who saw it all as the only woman member of the Commission inside Belgium, writes in her book, "The Women of Belgium, Turning Tragedy into Triumph":

"The story of Belgium will never be told. That is the word that passes oftenest between us. No one will ever

by word of mouth or in writing give it to others in its entirety or even tell what he himself has seen and felt. The longer he stays the more he realizes the futility of any such attempt; the more he becomes dumb. It requires a brush and color beyond our grasp; it must be the picture of the soul of a nation in travail, of the lifting of the strong to save the weak."

GREATER DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED IN NORTHERN FRANCE.

But this account would be entirely too incomplete without making some brief special reference to the work of the Commission in occupied France, where it had on its shoulders an even heavier burden, relatively, than in Belgium. There were, to be true, only one and three-quarter million people shut up in occupied France compared with the seven and a half million in occupied Belgium, but it was a far more helpless population. Fully one-fourth of all the people in North France escaped from it as the German invaders entered it. And this one-fourth included a particularly important part of the whole population, namely, practically all of the men capable of bearing arms, and in addition many of the better-to-do families. There were only left, thus, the old men, the women and children, and all the sick and physically infirm.

Moreover this unfortunate population was nearer the fighting lines; it was in the zone occupied by active armies and was under an exclusively military control. The prohibitions as to circulation of the people and movements of any supplies from country to town were more rigorous. Also the Germans would never make the same guarantees for not taking local foodstuffs that they made for Belgium, although, of course, they guaranteed all imported foodstuffs from any seizure. And the people were made to work the fields for the Germans instead of for themselves. So there was much less local food in North France than in Belgium to eke out the limited relief ration of imported food. Such conditions plainly increased the problems and added to the difficulties which had to be met.

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ALL RELIEF IN FRANCE HAMPERED BY THE MILITARY AUTHORITIES.

The Commission also was much more hampered in its work of distribution and inspection. Just as in Belgium, there was an elaborate relief organization of the native people, with a communal, regional, and district committee, all under a general head committee, which was commonly known as the

live all the time with his officer; sleep in his quarters; dine at his table. Theoretically, indeed, the C.R.B. men in North France were never to be out of sight or hearing of their proper escort officers. They could never meet with the French committees nor talk with any of the French people except in his presence. We called these officers our "nurses."



THE CHILDREN OF A "SCHOOL COLONY"

There is pathos in this picture of the children of "Schoolkolonie Berchem," housed in "Kasteel Boeckenberg" at Deurne. The adults are all Belgian volunteer workers who strove to prevent the next generation of Belgians from becoming dwarfed and stunted through lack of care. What the Belgians did for themselves is not fully realized.

Comité Français (C.F.). And there were American representatives of the C.R.B. to protect the food and supervise and check up its distribution. But the Germans allowed us to have but one man in each of the six districts in which occupied France was divided for relief purposes, with an additional chief representative who had to live at the Great Headquarters of the German General Staff at Charleville. These Americans had no motor cars of their own as in Belgium; they could travel only in German military cars, always in company with a German escort officer. In fact, each American had to

Of the one and three-quarter million French people in the occupied territory, at least one million were wholly dependent on charity for their daily bread. The ration basis on which the food was distributed differed a little from that in Belgium, especially in the addition to it of some sugar, and in the quality of the war-bread, which was coarser and poorer because of the addition to the imported flour used in making it of some flour provided by the Germans as a small offset to their seizure of the whole native grain crop. This flour, to the extent of about 100 grams a day, was theoretically turned

back from the French crop for the benefit of the French people, but in reality it came from Germany and was composed of a mixture of rye, potato meal, and other indeterminable things, and was very poor. The French wheat was reserved for German use.

THE DIFFICULT POSITION OF THE AMERICAN REPRESENTATIVES.

There was more suffering and more illness among the shut-in French than among the Belgians. The death rate in Lille, for example, increased by nearly 50%. And the nervous strain on the C.R.B. representatives in occupied France, because of the sad condition of the people, the rigors of the military control, and the added difficulties of the work, was severe. As chief representative of the Commission in North France for several months, living closely tied to my German escort officer at Great Headquarters, I became more used up than in all the other months of my service with the Commission. It was an experience of absorbing interest but constant strain.

The German escort officers were not all brutes—although some were. But they were all a part of a brutal military machine, and the American representatives in North France suffered from the necessity to repress any expression of their feelings. In Belgium they could boil over occasionally to discreet Belgian ears. Each American in North France, on assuming his position as Commission representative, took upon himself, according to the German requirements, "the obligation to carry out his duties in such a manner as may be expected from an honorable citizen of a neutral state." And it is gratifying to be able to record that in the whole history of the Commission's service in North France, no single complaint of dishonorable or unneutral conduct on the part of its representatives was made by the German military authorities. As in Belgium, when the Americans had to go out in April, 1917, their places were taken by Dutch and Spanish delegates. It may be added that when the Americans did go out, it was the men who had served in North France who made the swiftest rush to

enlist in one of the armies fighting the Germans!

FEED THE PEOPLE REGULARLY, NO MATTER THE COST.

To give further detail of this work would be but repetition. There was a larger element of excitement and danger in the work of the Commission men in North France because some of their activity was carried on within the danger limits of long distance shell-fire and aerial bombers. For that very reason there was a strong desire on the part of most of the young men of the Commission Staff to be assigned to the work in France. But their duties and work were essentially the same as in Belgium. They had, as we all had, a new Ten Commandments all concentrated in one, to obey. That was: "Feed the People Regularly, no matter the cost in energy, in compromise, in money; no matter the difficulty or the sore discouragement; keep the food coming in; keep it going to the mouths of the people."

That is what the Commission did. Despite all difficulties, diplomatic and material, interruptions in the overseas transportation, including a most serious one just after the Germans instituted their unrestricted submarine warfare, despite trouble in the canals—beginning in February, 1917, all the canals in Holland and Belgium were ice-bound for forty days and the whole distribution system had to be altered swiftly from water transport to a badly limited rail transport—despite constant interference and harassing trouble-making by the Germans, and in the face of a possible breaking up of the whole relief work any day, no commune in all the 5,000 in the French and Belgian occupied territory missed for a single day its ration of bread and soup, from the time the Americans went in until they went out. That is the tangible evidence of the service to humanity that the Commission for Relief in Belgium rendered. The Commission was sometimes called by the unthinking just a sublimated great grocery store. But its members are not called grocers by the French and Belgians; they are called saviours.



Belgian Soldiers in a Wrecked Village

CHAPTER LIV

Prussian Maps and Imperial Plans

HOW THE GERMANS EXPECTED TO REMAKE THE MAP OF THE WORLD

BY SIR WILLIAM M. RAMSAY

A FAVORITE ornament in Berlin restaurants just before the war was a map showing the world of the future, as it was to be when it had been reorganized by the Prussian victory. I am not sure that this map was displayed so often in the fashionable restaurants which tourists and foreigners would frequent, but it was to be seen in those which were thronged by the resident population of Berlin.

WHAT THE NEW GERMANY WAS TO INCLUDE.

It is worth while to compare the ideas expressed six years before Armageddon in the Prussian after-the-war map with the situation during the war and to examine how far they were realized. The comparison will also give some solid ground for estimating the German plans. The ideas of the map were those on which every child throughout Germany was trained; these were the natural and lawful claims on which children, as they grew up, were to insist.

On this map Germany, united in one country with Austria, extended from the English Channel to the Black Sea, the Aegean Sea, and the Adriatic. Belgium, the Netherlands, Denmark, all the Balkan countries except a small Greece, and the whole of Turkey in Europe with Constantinople, were

included in Austro-Germany. Most of France and a large part of Western Russia were also incorporated in the great Central Empire. Havre, Dieppe, Boulogne, and Calais, on the north, with the whole of the Seine valley and most of the Rhone valley, had been taken in. Switzerland and Italy remained independent; but the Central Empire encircled Switzerland on all sides, except the Italian frontier. The whole of "German Russia," the parts of Western Russia where Germans are more or less numerous, had been added to the German dominions.

GERMAN CONTEMPT FOR FRENCH MILITARY POWER.

The map gave some clue to the way in which this growth was to be accomplished. Obviously, it was understood that France had been conquered, and reduced to a tiny State along the Atlantic Ocean. No one, not even the most confident of Prussians, could have supposed that France would have consented to this dismemberment except as the result of a successful German invasion. The most powerful influence in bringing about the great war was the absolute certainty felt by every German and Austrian that a war against France would be a promenade to the Atlantic coast, in which the German legions would

march doing the parade-step, practically without opposition, across Paris to the mouths of the Loire and Garonne. It will be found on examination of history that almost every war has begun through the proud confidence felt by one side that it was able at any moment to beat the other.

THE INFLUENCE OF THREE SUCCESSFUL PRUSSIAN WARS.

If nations and governments realized the facts of the case, there would be no wars. The few cases in which a nation has gained immediate and complete success have been misfortunes to the world, because they have fostered the hopes of the side which goes into war for the purpose of gaining land and spoils. Unluckily, the Prussian mentality has been determined entirely by success, sudden and complete, in three wars. Now, with an army much larger, stronger, better equipped, and better prepared, Prussia and all Germany expected with undoubting confidence to eat up France at any time that it pleased, leaving only a tiny and helpless scrap of France in the west—not much, if at all, larger than Portugal.

As to Russia, the calculations of the map-makers were very different. They did not delude themselves with the idea that Russia was weak, and that it could be trampled in the dust. But a peaceful arrangement was possible; "German Russia" would be surrendered for an equivalent; and naturally the equivalent was to be given at other people's expense. The map showed Norway, Sweden, and Persia with the whole of Central Asia, colored Russia, and forming one vast mass far surpassing in size European Austro-Germany.

ONLY GERMANY AND RUSSIA TO BE IMPORTANT.

The world that counted was to consist mainly of the two vast Empires, Germany and Russia. Peaceful penetration was the method that the map-makers relied on in dealing with Russia, which could always be Germanized at leisure; Russia was barbarian and should be trained to German civilization by German culture.

Japan was reckoned with also. It

was greatly enlarged. Its "legitimate desire for expansion" was satisfied with possession of Australia, New Zealand, and all the great islands of Eastern Asia in that part of the Pacific. At the same time the existence of Japan was a menace to Russia, which would be helpless between Japan and Germany if the two latter Empires were in accord.

GERMAN CONTEMPT FOR THE UNITED STATES.

Most of Africa, including all French and Belgian territory, was taken over by Germany. South Africa remained free and allied. The fate of India I do not remember. The United States was left out of the account. The German opinion, very emphatically expressed in private by many Germans, has always been that the United States, being devoted to peace, do not count in the world, and would submit quietly to being ignored and disregarded. There was a large Germany in South America; but I do not remember its bounds.

The British Empire had shrunk to the two islands of Great Britain and Ireland. Obviously, its sea-power had been transferred to Germany; for the harbors all over the world, on which sea-power rests, had been taken from it. German Africa and South America implied command of the ocean.

THE GERMAN ATTEMPT TO REALIZE THEIR HOPE.

Such were the ideals to which young Germany had been trained up from childhood long before the war. Now, look how Prussian war plans in 1915 aimed at realizing the ideals, and what success they had.

Prussia seized a part of France, far less than it hoped, and it formed a line of frontier defense which France and Britain were long unable to break, for even the brilliant French victory in Champagne in September failed to break the line definitely, and Prussia retained the summit of the Hill of Tahure. The attempt to realize the ideal on the west was made, and was not successful except in a modest degree; but the idea is clearly seen in the fate of Belgium and French Lorraine.

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THE GERMAN DESIGNS ON THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

So also on the east the attempt was made to seize all "German Russia." As Russia refused to listen to the peace proposals that were made to it time and again, the seizure had to be forcible, and the plan was more successful on this side than on the west. Prussia gained—for the time—practically all that her map-makers intended; only Riga was not gained; and the line of frontier defense was not nearly so strong on this side as on the west.

Still, the plan of campaign is clearly seen. The German Army endeavored to adjust the map to suit the old ideas. It was not quite successful; but men are imperfect, and it is human to fall short of perfection. Next in the plan comes the south-eastern region. Those who called the Serbian enterprise a gambler's desperate last throw now find they were wrong. It was the orderly execution of a plan formed many years ago. It was even less successful than the throw on the west; but it was no mere venture, and it had some success, for it gained part of Serbia and all Bulgaria.

THE GERMAN PLAN TO COMPENSATE TURKEY.

As to the other elements of the plan, the sop to Japan, the giving of Norway and Sweden to Russia, a German Africa and South America, the allied South African State, etc., their execution has been postponed to a distant future; and it is evident in each case that the consent of those various countries has not been gained. While Sweden is, on the whole, pro-German in feeling, it is so because it has been deluded into believing that Germany was its pro-

tector against Russia, and it would not favor the completion of the Prussian plan.

It was never the intention of Prussian map-makers to alienate Turkey, which was to be compensated in Asia and Egypt for the loss of Constantinople. This part of the plan was committed to General von Mackensen. There is vast wealth in Asia Minor, which was for six or eight centuries after Christ the richest region in the world—richer even than Egypt, for the wealth of Egypt was carried away every year to Rome, leaving the enslaved Egyptians poor as before, while the wealth of Asia Minor remained in the country, except for Imperial taxes, because the population was largely free. The great Imperial estates, however, which were peopled by slaves of the Emperor, were ever growing larger in Asia Minor, just as all Egypt except Alexandria was one vast Imperial domain.

PLANS TO REVIVE THE PROSPERITY OF ASIA MINOR.

The wealth of Asia Minor is now potential, not actual. The country produces little more than enough to feed the population; but the amount can be immensely increased, and there is much unworked mineral wealth over and above the moderate amount that is exported. Within a year after reaching Constantinople, the Germans, if permitted to remain there as masters, would have stimulated largely the produce of Turkey. Schemes for this purpose had been in process of execution for years; grandiose schemes of irrigation, and new roads and railways; and they needed only time for them to bear fruit.



THE GERMAN LIGHT CRUISER ARIADNE

This light cruiser and the Frauenlob below were constructed at nearly the same time (between 1900 and 1902). The Ariadne, lost by gunfire, carried ten 4-inch guns and three torpedo tubes, one of them submerged. The German naval authorities counted upon the efficiency of these submerged torpedo tubes, but they were a disappointment.



THE FRAUENLOB, ANOTHER LIGHT CRUISER

British boats of approximately the same tonnage built at about the same time carried lighter armor or perhaps none at all. They had fewer torpedo tubes, or perhaps none at all. On the other hand their indicated horsepower and their speed were much higher and their coal capacity was much greater in order that they might be able to be of service to any part of the world.

Henry Ruschin.



The German Torpedo Boat (Destroyer) V186

CHAPTER LV

Blunders of German Naval Policy

HOW THE ALLIES GAINED ON LAND THROUGH THE ENEMY'S INACTION AT SEA

BY CARLYON BELLAIRS, R.N., M.P.

IF an American were asked to write this article, I think he would do so very tersely by saying that the Germans attempted to bite off more than they could chew, and that had Bismarck been in the saddle this would never have happened. Prussia had made all her conquests without naval power. Her statesmen were the keenest students of history in the world. Three facts stand out in history:

1. The economic difficulty of combining vast land armies with the expenditure required for attaining sea supremacy.

2. The jealousy of Great Britain for any Power that attempts to rival her on the sea.

3. That Great Britain's strength resides not merely in the power of her Navy but in the military rivalries of the Continent, and when the latter were absent—in the War of American Independence—Great Britain was virtually defeated.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE ADOPTS A NAVAL POLICY.

About 1896 a pushing officer of the name of von Tirpitz, from the China station, obtained the ear of the Kaiser. He played upon his desire for aggrandizement, sea-power and empire. He was chosen to effect these things. This could not be done secretly, for

the German people had to be educated so as to grant the appropriations, and the foreign policy had to create situations in which the "tyranny" of British sea-power could be demonstrated. The educational crusade was of the most blatant character, especially in regard to the official Navy League of over one million members. At every point it flew in the face of a famous caution of a famous statesman, the great Chatham, who enjoined an ambassador in words somewhat as follows: "Above all other things, not to mention the British Navy, and so avoid giving cause for every hireling pen in Europe to inveigh against the maritime pretensions of this country." The country which a few years before had coaxed Heligoland out of Great Britain, entered upon a course of policy destined to drive the country into the arms of Germany's chief military rivals.

ONLY SUCCESS COULD JUSTIFY SUCH A POLICY.

Such a policy could only be justified by success—that is, by the creation of a navy capable of defeating Great Britain on that sea which has never tolerated more than one master. On the land an inferior army can hold up a superior one, and the nation can pursue its manifold activities behind the security thus afforded. Such a situa-

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tion is unthinkable on the sea. Consequently, a naval policy which spends several hundreds of millions and misses success is in itself a disastrous failure for a great military nation. This is now well understood by the Germans themselves, for above all other things they worship the military doctrine of concentration. If they had anticipated the possibility of failure on the sea, they would certainly have concentrated the expenditure on increasing the great military machine on shore. It is equally true that until the military rivalries of the Continent had been put down, the drain of expensive colonies abroad was also an extravagance, for transmarine colonies fall like ripe fruit into the hands of the Power with the command of the sea.

HOW GERMANY MIGHT HAVE GAINED SUCCESS.

In other words, Germany was bound to lose her colonies and the troops and stores in them. It does not follow from this that all naval expenditure as against Britain was folly. In addition, Germany necessarily required such a fleet as could secure her the control of the Baltic against Russia. The point for Germany to have fixed her mind on was that until she had eliminated the drain of military rivalries on the Continent she could not hope to rival Great Britain on the sea. On the other hand, the latter's life-blood is her shipping, and without any of the elements of ostentatious rivalry a war against British shipping could have been prepared, which, in the circumstances actually existing in 1914, would have left Great Britain in a very crippled position. The overweening ambitions of von Tirpitz and the Kaiser were their own undoing, and the British Empire was saved in spite of its rulers.

The second great mistake of Germany was in the military mind which fails to understand democratic diplomacy. It failed to understand the shock the invasion of Belgium would be to Great Britain. It interpreted Sir Edward Grey's assurance that the First Fleet was at Portland instead of being at its war base, and that Great Britain had no intention of calling out

the reserves, as a positive proof that she would not go to war, and consequently, von Tirpitz failed to prepare for the eventuality which took Germany by surprise. Both Russia and France realized and strenuously represented that only unmistakable naval and military preparations on Great Britain's part would prevent war. It was a genuine misunderstanding on both sides. Great Britain did not understand military diplomacy, and Germany did not show any comprehension of democratic diplomacy. In any case, Germany's policy being what it was, the war could only have been postponed. The capital result for us is that Germany had not more than ten war vessels and a number of mercantile auxiliaries abroad. She failed to strike, except with mine-fields before the declaration of war, and so missed the use of her favorite stroke, "the bolt from the blue." England, "which is famous for negligence," as Marlborough said, was given time to spread her net and Germany has been enmeshed in it ever since.

GERMANY FAILED TO TAKE ADVANTAGE OF BRITISH MISTAKES.

There was, however, one direction in which similar tactics would have been equally effective whether Great Britain was in the war or not. The war was at Germany's chosen moment, and she would certainly get possession of the French industrial districts where lay the bulk of the coal and iron supplies. It would be essential in case of a war with France and Russia to invade the trade routes to prevent replacement of supplies while the whole French Navy was busy safeguarding the passage of French troops in the Mediterranean. Against Great Britain the central facts were:

1. Her absolute dependence on her shipping and sea-borne supplies.
2. The 1904 scrapping of cruisers without replacement.
3. The 1904-14 policy of cutting down cruiser strength abroad.
4. The mistaken 1904-09 Admiralty view that small cruisers were of little use, and, consequently, armed merchant vessels still more useless.



THE NEW WAR HARBOR OF KIEL, GERMANY

The War Harbor of Kiel is said to have been the best example of its kind in existence. The city itself was founded in the thirteenth century but was a sleepy old town until galvanized into new life by the development of the German Navy. Besides the Imperial shipyards there were large private establishments.



A GERMAN TORPEDO BOAT DIVISION

The term torpedo boat was retained in the German navy for the larger craft, armed not only with torpedoes but also with rapid fire guns. Such boats are called by other navies torpedo boat destroyers, or more commonly, simply destroyers. The German naval architects were perhaps less successful with this type of craft than with battleships. This uncommon photograph shows a whole division of the turbine-driven craft in a haven.

Ruschin.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

POLICY WHICH MIGHT HAVE BROUGHT SUCCESS.

Had these facts been understood by the German Admiralty, they would have scattered every cruiser and mercantile auxiliary to the distant trade routes during the period of crisis from July 23 to August 4, 1914. As a matter of fact, not a single armed vessel moved outwards. The Emden's successes were really like the bitter fruit of the tree of knowledge, for they taught only of the lost opportunities, which, owing to British negligence, were offered in profusion.

The German military mind seems incapable of any graduations of method suited to adverse circumstances. With a magnificent military machine on shore it made frightfulness an undoubtedly successful policy. It tried the same methods at sea and expected similar results. The hope was futile, for the same reason that all German frightfulness on shore recoiled on her the moment the military machine began to fail. Had Germany been a model of correct conduct in her sea campaign, every neutral would have been nagging furiously at Great Britain and endeavoring to defeat her blockade. Once Germany provoked the United States, under the submarine policy, definitely against her, Great Britain had little difficulty in dealing with the illicit trade by Holland, Denmark and even Sweden.

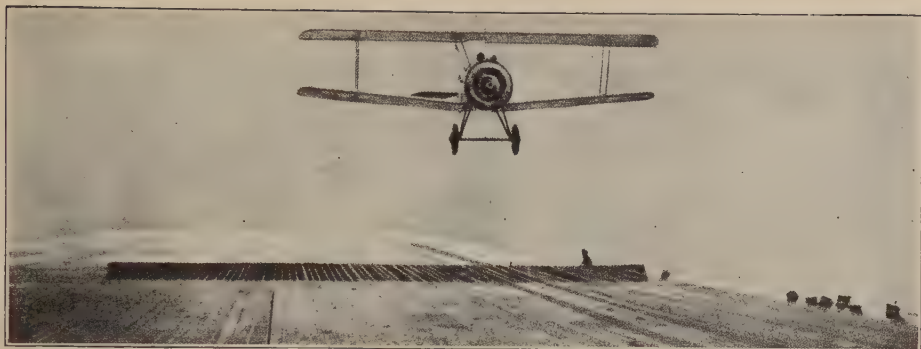
SOME OTHER GERMAN MISTAKES IN PREPARATION.

An idea seems to be held in many quarters that the Germans seldom make mistakes in regard to mechanism and this idea has been fostered by Mr. Lloyd George in debates on munitions. As a matter of fact, the preparedness of the Germans in military matters was simply achieved by the profusion of expenditure on all weapons. If they had to choose, as every nation must when not preparing for its own selected moment, they would have been forced to concentrate on what they held to be most vital. This is exactly what they had to do in naval matters. Take the destroyer, one of the most common of naval craft. Great Britain pinned her

faith to the gun, Germany to the torpedo. Indeed, in the destroyer, Great Britain was nearly right on every point so far as design was concerned. In every one of the classes of ships she adopted the correct principle of the heavier armament. Except for the naval mine and the Zeppelin, I do not know of a single case where Germany was right in the adoption of the weapon at the same time that Great Britain was wrong. British mines were of a useless design because the limit was one of cost; and no Zeppelins were built.

NO SIGN OF A GREAT DIRECTING INTELLIGENCE.

The comparative failure of Germany arose from the simple fact that she had to compromise in regard to naval expenditure so as to get what she thought would give the best results out of a limited expenditure; but even so, we should always remember that these preparations were all directed to reach fruition at Germany's chosen moment. She was again right in her large reserve of guns and in the provision of armaments for merchant vessels and Great Britain was wrong to neglect those things, but on a broad survey it is impossible to find evidence of any great brain directing affairs, and the only conclusion one can come to is that von Tirpitz was simply a dead-weight to German policy; that the German Navy's correct function was to help win domination in Europe, leaving the overthrow of British naval supremacy to a future date, when the industrial resources of Europe or a greatly enlarged Germany could be thrown into the scale. It would have been far wiser to appoint a military leader like von der Goltz rather than von Tirpitz to be head of the German Navy. He would have understood how to subordinate its actions to the object in view, and a statesman like Bismarck, who kept the military element in subjection to the political purposes to be achieved, might even have lulled the suspicions of Great Britain until the time came for dealing with the sea-girt isle which withstood Philip of Spain, Louis XIV. and Napoleon.



Seaplane Arising from Parent Ship

CHAPTER LVI

Later Developments of War in the Air

THE AIRMEN BECOME INCREASINGLY IMPORTANT FACTORS IN MODERN WARFARE

THE history of war in the air was brought in another volume up to the end of 1915. While the war of movement lasted the function of aircraft was reconnaissance; with the development of trench warfare, the mapping out of the intricate maze of trenches and saps was added. This was done at first by patient drawing and later by aerial photography. Artillery bombardment before infantry attack replaced the former movements of armies, and aircraft, later fitted with wireless, directed the gunners.

THE PLANES NOW TAKE UP NEW FUNCTIONS IN THE WAR.

With the deadlock both sides reorganized their air-services, remodeled and developed their machines. Swifter and more powerful aeroplanes were produced and another function developed—the destruction of enemy troops and *matériel* by weight-lifting *avions de bombardement* which towards the end of 1915 became effective. The autumn of 1915 saw a spectacular revival in German aeronautics (subsequent to Allied raids on Ludwigshafen and Karlsruhe) and the appearance early in 1916 of the famous Fokker machine. Strife for mastery in the air, so that observation and bomb-dropping could be carried on unhindered, had led to aerial combats and the perfecting of the *avions de chasse*.

THE STATE OF KNOWLEDGE EARLY IN THE WAR.

The following letter, written from an aviation camp by the famous Boelcke illustrates the tentative character of German aeronautical knowledge early in the war:

“D. June 24, 1915

“Yesterday the Crown Prince of Bavaria inspected our camp. Here we have gathered samples of about everything that our knowledge of aviation has developed; two airplane squadrons and one battleplane division. Both airplane squadrons are equipped with the usual biplanes, only we have an improvement: the wireless, by means of which we direct the fire of our artillery. The battleplane squadron is here because there is a lot to do at present on this front (the West). Among them there are some unique machines, for example: a great battleplane with two motors; it is for three passengers and equipped with a bomb-dropping apparatus. Outside of this, there are other battleplanes with machine guns. They are a little larger than the usual run. Then there are some small Fokker monoplanes, also with machine guns.”

ACTIVITY IN THE AIR BEFORE THE VER- DUN ASSAULT.

With the concentration of troops and *matériel* in the Verdun hinterland early

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in 1916, the Fokker was greatly used by the enemy to prevent aerial scouting over his lines. Emboldened by success against the French and British airmen, the Germans frequently came over their lines, bombing lines of com-

destroyed a Zeppelin near Brabant-le-Roi. After this preliminary aerial skirmishing, the great German attack on Verdun was launched.

The German aerial arm was furnished with a series of new machines: small, one-seated biplanes (Albatros, Halberstadt, New Fokker and Ago) with a fixed motor 165-175 h.p. and fitted with two stationary machine guns firing through the propellers. These were grouped into chasing squadrons (*Jagdstaffeln*) and were fighting units consisting of eighteen aeroplanes, which flew in groups (*Ketten*) of six each, one serving as a guide (*Kettenführer*). The French had been the first to use a group of fighting machines in the Artois offensive of May 1915, but they were used by them only in defense. They had organized them again for the Verdun attack, but its violence exceeded all expectations and after it began they were numerically unable to perform all the missions required. For a few days the Germans drove the French aeroplanes off the battlefield, forced them from their landing places by cannon, and won the mastery in the air.



CAPTAIN LUFBERRY OF THE LAFAYETTE SQUADRON

munication and transport between Châlons and Verdun. In spite of enemy superiority, however, French airmen did succeed in getting through and beheld strange activities between Metz and Mézières. On February 21 a vigorous enemy aerial offensive took place; in one place a squadron of fifteen enemy machines was brought to a fight by the French who effected heavy damage on the raiders, and also

THE FRENCH REGAIN THE INITIATIVE AROUND VERDUN.

It was thus until Feb. 25, when General Pétain took command, restored the front and set to work to reconquer the initiative in the air. All available French squadrons were concentrated in this sector, and airmen were ordered to adopt vigorous offensive measures. When new French fighting machines of improved model and 110 h.p. arrived, the lost element was retrieved and aeroplanes engaged in regulating artillery fire and taking photographs could work in safety. Aerial combats occurred daily; the Lafayette *Escadrille* with Thaw and Lufberry and de Laage brought down some eighteen German machines and the French *Cigogne* (Stork) squadron won great distinction in this region, although their greatest "stork," Guynemer, was slightly wounded and compelled to be absent from his friends. To disguise the machines against the Verdun landscape, decorations of large irregularly placed



ZEPPELIN BROUGHT DOWN AT RÉVIGNY

In spite of the millions spent in trials and in bringing them to perfection, and in spite of the speed and power which they possess, Zeppelins are vulnerable: one well-placed shell is enough to destroy a dreadnought of the air. The picture shows all that was left of the car of the Zeppelin at Révigny.



SUPER-ZEPPELIN L32 BROUGHT DOWN IN ESSEX

Enormous crowds witnessed this combat. They saw a glow like that of a cigar appear at one of the ends of the Zeppelin. For a few seconds the vast mass of the airship remained aflame at a height of about 8000 feet then plunged swiftly to the ground. All on board perished. Some of the crew were flung out, others remained in her to the end and perished in the blaze which swept them to earth.

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spots of green and red adorned the upper part to correspond to the red clay soil and green of the spring-clad country. The aeroplane was blue underneath that it might disappear against the background of the sky. The German machines were white with black crosses, save that of the celebrated Captain Boelcke, which was black with white crosses, and did deadly execution among the French aviators. He seems to have had the force of a squadron in himself.

Boelcke remarks in a letter from the Verdun front: "The devil is loose on the front. Six Americans are up. I could plainly see the American flag on the fuselage. They were quite bold; came all the way across the front." Boelcke—to his credit be it said—caring nothing for the multiplicity of the "devil" attacked, but this time was driven home and concludes regretfully, "I only saw that the Americans were again flying where I had found them."

THE HARDEST FIGHTING SHIFTS FROM VERDUN TO THE SOMME.

All through the spring a furious assault beat upon Verdun, but spent its strength in vain. Periodical French counter-attacks burst into flame just as soon as the German first fury was stemmed. "*Passeront pas!*" sang the soldiers, and the fliers in the clouds set the firmament echoing to the cry. Summer wore on and the attacks on Verdun died down; they had failed, failed of their purpose to capture Verdun; failed of their attempt to drive the British into a premature offensive. By July all things were in readiness, however, and the Battle of the Somme began on the flat lands on both sides of the river.

The air forces had a considerable share in this struggle. Forced, as at Verdun, to resist the numerical superiority of the enemy, they ignored adverse weather conditions and performed their functions in spite of them. Preparation had been careful: aerodromes organized and effective concentration made. During the early days of the Somme battle the one-seated aeroplane fighting singly was king of the

air, although conditions changed shortly afterwards and squadron formation became the rule. The French and British were using chiefly the Nieuport for chasing, until the Spad appeared early in September under the pilotage of Guynemer and Corporal Sauvage. These like the Fokkers were armed with a machine gun firing through the propeller. Seated in one, "free to manoeuvre at will, the solitary pilot could plan ruses, hide himself in the light or in the clouds, take advantage of the enemy's blind side, and carry out sudden destructive attacks which are impossible in groups." Later in the campaign the enemy drilled their one-seated or two-seated patrols, trained them in resistance to isolated attack and taught them how to attack the solitary machine which had ventured out beyond its own lines. Then the Allies in defense were compelled to alter their tactics and adopt group formation.

THE FLYING FORMATION OF A RAIDING SQUADRON.

The flight of the larger migratory birds was taken as a model. The squadron flew in the shape of a great V with the leader at the apex. In a raid the heavier, clumsier bombing planes flew between the prongs of the V, guarded in the rear by another line of fighting planes. The bombers were thus enclosed by a triangle of fighting planes.

Captain Boelcke had been taking an enforced rest in the Balkans; he was brought back to the Somme in September to organize a fighting squadron, and empowered to select from the Flying Service those men who seemed particularly qualified for the service. Among others he chose the brilliant young Baron von Richthofen, who later was to attain the proud total of eighty machines brought down (the Germans counted captive balloons among their score). From letters written by von Richthofen from the Somme we can almost exactly date the formation of the first Boelcke *Jagdstaffel* of the circus type. "Sept. 16, 1916. We were at the butts trying our machine guns. On the previous day we

had received our new aeroplanes and the next morning Boelcke was to fly with us. We all were beginners." The following day, "Before we started Boelcke repeated to us his instructions and for the first time we flew as a squadron commanded by the great man whom we followed blindly."

And later he says "Frequently we fought really big battles in the air. There were then from forty to sixty English machines, but unfortunately the Germans were often in the minority. Still the Englishman is a smart fellow. That we must allow. Sometimes the Englishmen came down to a very low altitude and visited Boelcke in his quarters upon whom they threw their bombs. They absolutely challenged us to battle and never refused fighting."

VON RICHTHOFEN'S CIRCUS AP- PEARS ON THE FIELD.

Boelcke met his death one gusty morning in October, 1916, among the clouds and above those fields which he once called the El Dorado of flying men. Here too Hawker, the gallant British ace, fell a victim to von Richthofen himself. In a spectacular duel which began at 10,000 feet the two airmen manoeuvred downwards in ever-narrowing spirals until only 300 feet above the ground.

Hawker, turning his machine into the wind, sought to regain his own lines. Von Richthofen followed and shot Hawker through the head so that he crashed and fell one hundred and fifty feet behind the German lines. Immelmann had fallen early in July, shot down by McKubbin.

When von Richthofen had destroyed his sixteenth machine, he was promoted to flight commander, and began a sensational career in a scarlet aeroplane. The members of his squadron followed their individual preference in coloring. A machine might have a red body, blue nose and yellow wings. All were brightly colored, and were nicknamed by the British airmen "Von

Richthofen's Circus" not merely for their gaudy hues, but also for the fact that they were fully equipped with a train in which they could live if necessary and a repairing outfit including mechanics, so that they could be transferred as a unit from point to



CAPTAIN BOELCKE, FAMOUS GERMAN ACE

point of the front as pressure varied. Thus the circus might be operating at Verdun one week, the next north of Arras, and a few days later on the Somme. Whenever it pitched its tents it did its regular squadron performance, and followed it up later in the day by lone-hand raids or strafing flights by two or three. The term "circus" is now an adopted one among airmen, having this distinct meaning.

PLANES BEGIN TO ACCOMPANY ATTACK- ING INFANTRY.

The skies above the Somme lands witnessed another development in aerial tactics, the successful use of contact patrols which linked artillery and infantry together. To the British

belongs the credit of a trial use of the aeroplane with the infantry, but the French first used it with some success at Verdun. On the Somme it filled a great want. Previous to this battle, liaison between infantry and guns was a very difficult matter. A battalion would go "over the top" and disappear behind the enemy's lines. It might need reinforcements, or it might wish to call for concentrated fire on a dangerous point, but its only means of

timed infantry attacks, but followed up the latter and revealed the situation of the enemy's new lines, his defensive works, his reinforcements and his attempted counter-attacks.

As was natural this low-flying left much to the initiative of solitary airmen, who took full advantage of their freedom and made lone-hand attacks on enemy trenches, dug-outs and machine guns. In the fourth year of the war, when the Allies retreated in the spring and the Germans withdrew in the summer and autumn, trench fighting gave place to more open warfare. During these periods, the daring swallow airman on both sides came into his own as he swooped low upon roads and railways choked with troops and transport. Similarly, in the Bulgarian withdrawal of September and October, 1918, Allied aviators succeeded in creating what was almost panic among men and beasts on the few roads open among the inhospitable mountains. During the battle of Amiens, 1918, British airmen even compelled the surrender of railway trains and, on one occasion, of a huge long-range gun.

THE ALLIED AIRMAN IN CONTROL OF THE SOMME FRONT.

Throughout the battle of the Somme, the Allied aviators continued all their functions in the air. The French and British were flying every day in all weathers over every point of importance within thirty miles of the front, and sometimes even reaching places seventy miles distant. They were dropping bombs on trains, on ammunition stores, on columns of transport. "They dipped down low to use the machine guns on marching troops. They attacked and destroyed the enemy's observation balloons. They even slid out of the clouds and—audacity could go no further—engaged and routed the anti-aircraft guns themselves." The following extract, taken from the diary of a German lieutenant of the 180th Regiment, is eloquent upon the subject:

"August 25. Today we had a tremendously heavy bombardment which surpassed anything I have ever seen. Who can say if it was our own



CAPTAIN ALBERT BALL, D. S. O., M. C.

communication, telephone wires, runners, pigeons and signals, were all in the danger zone itself and liable to destruction. When the British introduced the creeping barrage of artillery fire which, as a curtain, moved a little ahead of the infantry, the need was even greater. The airmen solved the problem. Flying in stable machines equipped with wireless and Klaxon horns, they swept at a low altitude over the advancing lines, "observed all developments, signalled back guidance for the barrage and by means of message bags supplied headquarters with valuable information." Thus they not only regulated artillery fire, and



GERMAN BALLOON ALIGHTING IN THE WEST

This is a German military observation balloon of the Caquot type. As a director of gun fire the captive balloon was being used before the end of the war on a scale which practically displaced the aeroplane. Seated aloft in the basket the observer acted as sentinel of the sky with the keen long-range vision of the hawk.

Ruschin.



MAKING FAST

This picture was taken with the British forces in Italy. Balloon cloth has to be very closely woven, smooth and strong so as to serve as a base for the rubberizing process. It should have a weave of approximately 140 threads to the inch both ways, and be from 38 to 45 inches wide. No "slubs" knots, or other imperfections which prevent an even surface for rubberizing may be present in this material.

British Official.

or the enemy's artillery? We stand here under the most severe artillery fire ever seen by the world, directed so accurately by twenty-nine captive balloons which venture up a bare six hundred metres high for fear of the enemy's aviators. At the same time they are so far behind, to get out of the



GUYONEMER, KING OF THE STORK
ESCADRILLE

enemy's naval guns, that our artillery can scarcely be said to have aerial observers." And again, August 31; he writes: "There are thirty-four English captive balloons and one German to be seen. This is a fine state of affairs! In addition there are about fifty aviators climbing overhead."

THE FAMOUS GUYONEMER AND THE STORK SQUADRON.

Much of the credit for this mastery of the air belongs to those who organized and those who led these fighting expeditions over the enemy country. Through their efforts, reconnaissance, artillery spotting and photography

proceeded with little disturbance, whereas the Germans were so hard pressed that, as the diary quoted above records, they could hardly guide their own guns or collect useful information. Among the French squadrons, the first to arrive on the Somme was the Stork Squadron, which was shown to have waged from March 19 to August 19, 1916, 338 combats, bringing down 36 aeroplanes, 3 *drachen* (dragon balloons) and compelling 36 other badly damaged aeroplanes to land. Guyonemer and Nungesser had survived the winter's risks and led their comrades in daring and skill. For a year more the former was to continue his spectacular career. It must be noted in this connection that the prevalence of westerly winds was a great handicap to Allied fliers in that they drifted farther over the enemy's lines as they fought, and in case of crippling were forced to fly into a head wind before they could make a safe descent.

Late in September and throughout October the foe made a savage attempt to regain his standing in the air. He produced new types of machines—among them a new Halberstadt possessing 240 h.p. with strong climbing power. It was then that Boelcke was recalled from Turkey and given the task of organizing the flying squadrons.

A SPIRITED ACCOUNT OF A BOMBING EXPEDITION.

An account of a bombing expedition drawn from the chronicles of Mr. Perry Robinson, *The Times* correspondent at the Battle of the Somme, must complete our summary of this great period of aerial activity. It was September, 1916, and the enemy was continually shifting masses of men from all northern points of his line down to the Somme and taking his shattered divisions back to rest. Liber court, the objective of the raid, was a railway junction of great importance, but near the station were three aerodromes which must be kept quiet if the raid was to be a success. Thus at 1 o'clock Allied aviators from behind the clouds began to bomb the aerodromes. "Immediately after the first bombs, which scattered ruin, other bombs began to

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fall, not dangerously explosive, but emitting thick clouds of fumes and smoke, blinding and bewildering the men below, till each aerodrome from above looked like a boiling pit. Into this turmoil the airmen above kept at intervals dropping high-explosive bombs. Meanwhile at the junction soon after 1:30 a train was seen, and two of our squadrons dipped from out of

busy. Troops as they poured out and fled southwards ran the gauntlet of machine-gun fire from the skies. Meanwhile, another aeroplane attacked Libercourt station and dropped nearly fifty bombs which fell on the station buildings, railway sidings, on the rolling stock in the yards, and spread destruction everywhere around. Overhead some of the fighting planes circled



TWO DISTINCT TYPES OF ARMY PLANES

This picture illustrates the contrast between the build of an aeroplane according to function. On the left is shown a bombing plane with large wing-spread to support the weight of the bombs it carries. The smaller machine on the right is a fighting plane, fitted with very powerful engines and designed to have great climbing power.

the sky until they were only 800 feet above the train and as they dropped, they saw another train coming along a branch line, and this two others went off to deal with."

Both trains were loaded with troops, and they had a dreadful time. When the engine was thrown from the rails, as a result of the explosion, the troops scrambled from the wreckage for shelter to a large wood, with the aeroplanes playing upon them as they fled panic-stricken, massed together. Wreckage of the first train blocked the approach of the other train from Lens and as it stood the airmen again grew

and kept watch in case the enemy machines should attempt to interfere, but no hostile craft appeared.

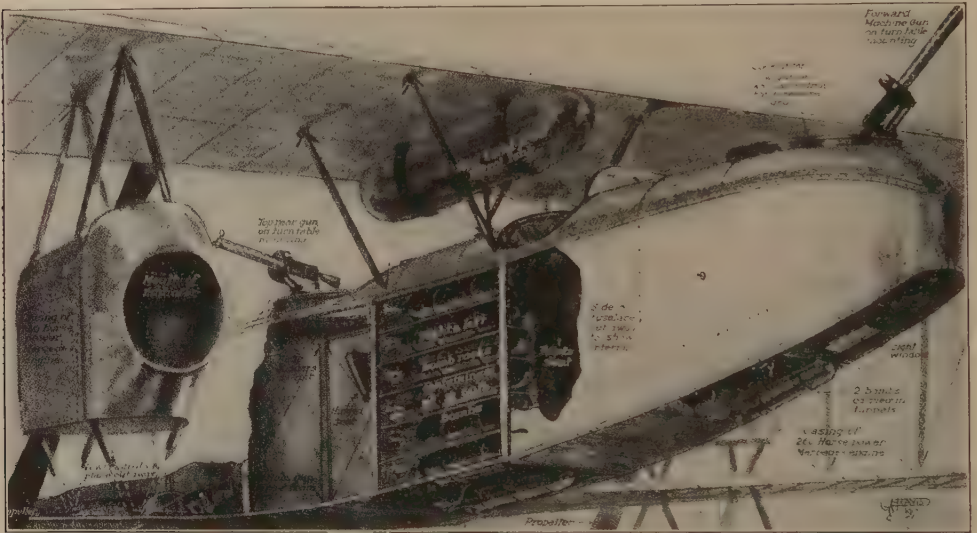
THE GERMANS ENTIRELY REORGANIZE THEIR AIR SERVICE.

The French Staff in its summary of results of Allied aerial warfare for 1916 announced that 900 aeroplanes had been destroyed, 81 kite balloons burned, and 754 bombardments had taken place. The German Staff was not slow to profit by the lessons of the Somme campaign and began a thorough over-hauling of its aeronautical service. By a decree of November, 1916, the aerial forces were separated from the other forces of

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communication and classed as Aerial Combatant Forces (*Luftstreitkräfte*) under a separate staff officer, General Lieutenant von Hoepfner, who had been Chief of Staff of Otto von Below's Sixth Army, as *Kommandeur der Luftstreitkräfte*. The more than two hundred and seventy squadrons were divided into bombing, chasing, patrolling and field squadrons (of which the last were entrusted with scouting, photography, and spotting). The commander of the aeronautical section of

factories. By the spring of 1917 she possessed forty chasing squadrons of different types including a new Fokker and Albatros of 160 h. p., with a Benz or Mercédès fixed engine and two Maxim guns shooting through the propeller blades. As bomb-carriers, von Hoepfner was also responsible for the two-engine Gothas (520 h. p.) which gained such notoriety in raids over Britain, the Friederichshafens and the A. E. 9 (450 h. p.). Preparation was very careful and General von Hoepfner



SECTIONAL DIAGRAM OF A GOTHA FIGHTING PLANE

This particular Gotha carried two 260 h. p. Mercédès engines with propellers moving behind the wings, thus being really propulsive, not "tractor." In a turret forward a gun fired forwards, and, at certain angles above and below the wings. Two others, in grooves on transverse tubes behind the rear passenger, fired, one above the body, the other in a gun-tunnel level with the floor, in the manner shown in the diagram.

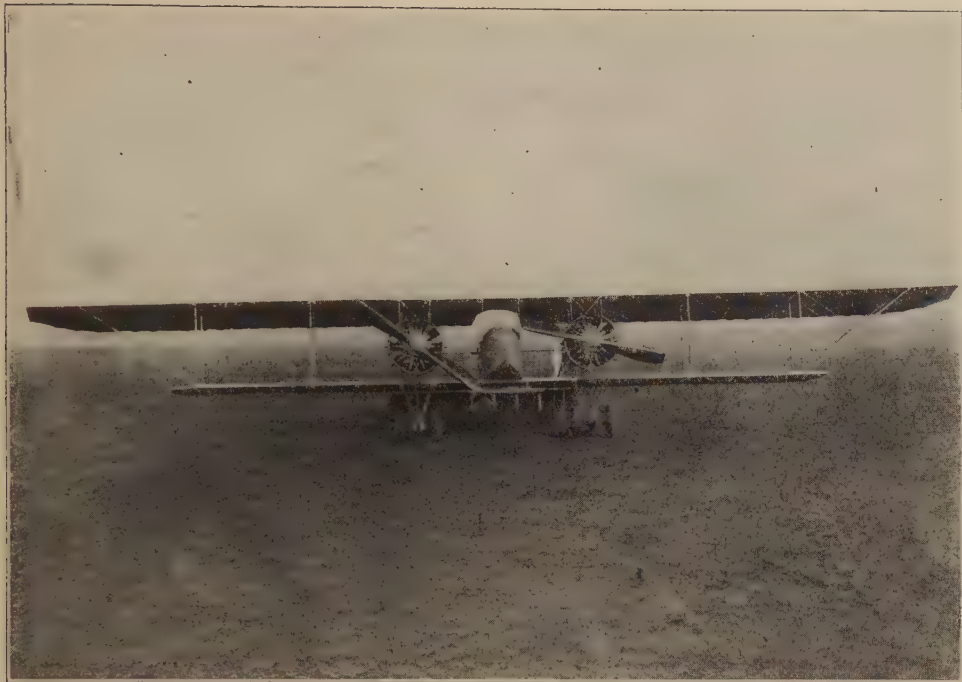
the Fifth German Army before Verdun had stated in a report that "a conscientious aviator was the only reliable informant in battle," and this statement was amplified by the Crown Prince, who urged constant association between the air service and the infantry.

This personal relation between infantry and airmen was strongly urged by Guynemer and by von Richthofen who were filled with admiration for the former's heroic work and commiseration for their hardships in the trenches. During the winter Germany strengthened her chasing squadrons, improved the *personnel* of her air service, concentrated on producing high-powered engines, and increased the output of her

told the press at the end of May, 1917, that the German airmen were unrivaled.

THE BRITISH ALSO RECEIVE SOME NEW TYPES.

At the end of March the Germans began to withdraw towards the Siegfried line and during this time, activity in the air was of course very great. Before the advent of the Bristol fighters, the Sopwith triplanes and de Havillands in numbers, the British Royal Flying Corps were having a very bad time. On April 6, for instance it was reported in the Headquarters *communiqué* that twenty-eight machines had been missing for two days. The enemy, secure in his new Siegfried line by the end of the first week of April, believed that he



A BRITISH BOMBING PLANE

A large twin-engined biplane of the combat class which combines great weight-carrying power with high speed. The controls are situated in the fuselage and because the propellers are at the sides the observer has a less obstructed vision and clearer field of fire. This renders synchronising of machine gun and propeller unnecessary.



ARMORY OF BRITISH BOMBING SQUADRON

The armory of a night-bombing squadron of the Royal Air Force. Pilots and observers took the most meticulous care of their guns and pistols for they were their sole chance of safety if surprised by enemy airmen. This squadron was proud of its armory which it considered the finest in Europe.

British Official.

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had gained a better position than he had lost at the Somme. But the Allies had prepared a spring offensive striking at the pivots of the new German positions, in the north around Douai and Cambrai and in the south at Laon.

Every class of machine was engaged in preparations for the great offensive. Bombing squadrons were out by day

look far into our lines and note everything that was going on. We proposed to put out these enemy eyes. We called the big, elongated gas-bags 'sausages' and the French did likewise '*saucisses*'. They floated in the air at anywhere from 800 to 3000 feet above the ground, and were held captive by cables. These cables were attached to some special kind of windlasses which could pull



BOMBS IN THEIR PLACE IN A PLANE

This picture shows one mechanism for carrying and dropping bombs in a bombing plane. Mounted on a cylinder, whose rotation is governed by a trigger, the bombs are dropped at the pilot's will. Bombs were fitted with a safety mechanism and could be dropped "safe" if the aviator had to get rid of them over his own lines. Some machines carried much longer bombs than these, which are in fact rather small.

and by night when they flew over the lines with only the stars to guide them and dropped tons of explosives on German communications. Photographers were busy during every hour of sunlight and artillery observers put through long days with the guns at preliminary bombardment. Major Bishop was at this time doing some of his daring work with the R. F. C. and he speaks of an attack upon the German captive balloons. "They flew in the same place almost every day—well back of the enemy's lines, but the observers in them, equipped with splendid telescopes, could leisurely

the balloons down in an incredibly short space of time. Sometimes they could disappear as if by witchcraft. Wherever the sausages flew they were protected from aeroplane attack by heavy batteries of anti-aircraft guns, and also by what we came to know as 'flaming onions.' These 'flaming onions' appear to consist of about ten balls of fire and are shot from some kind of rocket gun. . . . Our instructions were not only to drive the enemy balloons down but to set fire to and destroy them. This is done by diving on them from above and firing some incendiary missile at them."



HYDROPLANE AFLOAT IN THE WATER

In a hydroplane floats replace the wheels of the aeroplane. After the war an amphibious plane was developed in which wheels and floats were both present and could be adjusted to the nature of the taking-off or landing ground. While on the water the pilot steers chiefly by means of the rudder or "tail" of the fuselage.



LIFTING THE HYDROPLANE TO ITS HANGAR

In this graceful machine the true "stream-line" is pronounced, and gives it the effect of a water or dragon fly. The British Royal Naval Air Service did considerable work with hydroplanes on the Belgian coast and at the mouth of the German rivers. But for satisfactory sea reconnaissance the Zeppelin or balloon was found generally more satisfactory, and in this respect the Germans were better equipped in the beginning than the Allies.

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AIRMEN EVEN ATTACK THE ENEMY IN THE TRENCHES.

On April 4 the attack was launched. That the German infantry did not relish this vigorous offensive is proved from letters taken from prisoners captured during the Arras offensive. One writes: "These British airmen are the very devil, for they come down to our trenches and almost enter our dug-outs, bombing and machine-gunning and seeming to take the greatest pleasure in doing so, and quite regardless of our rifle fire. We should not be at all surprised at any time to know that they had found a way of flying right through our dug-outs, and we have no peace from them night or day." Nor were the airmen content merely to signal back the positions of enemy guns, in some cases they shot the crews of the batteries, and instances of heavy guns being put out of action by direct bomb hits from 150 feet are known.

Von Richthofen himself remarks of these days: "During the full-moon nights of the month of April, 1917, our English friends were particularly active." One night, it seems, they raided the aviators' quarters, and awakened by the noise of barking guns, he says, "One of the Englishmen flew at so low an altitude over my habitation that in my fright I pulled the blanket over my head." At the end of the month the new British machines had arrived and began to make their presence felt. Von Richthofen, April 29, admits that the new Sopwiths and de Havillands could outclimb the famous Albatros chaser.

THE FRENCH AIRMEN LED BY GUYNEMER DO GREAT WORK.

Meanwhile in the southern sector of the line the French offensive had been launched against the heights of the Aisne. The opening day, April 6, was snowy and wet and air observation was badly crippled, the enemy had got wind of the attack and the tanks did not achieve as much as had been hoped. The French aviators did some heroic work; it is said of Guynemer at this time that whereas on the Somme he had been one of the great French champions, on the Aisne he became

their king. Later in the Flanders offensive, the *Badische Presse* for August 8, 1917, pays the following tribute to his eagle-like flights: "The airman you see flying so high is the famous Guynemer. He is the rival of our most daring aviators, an *as*, as the French reckon their champions." On September 11, 1917, he was killed after having brought down fifty-four enemy planes.

As for the Germans, no longer on the offensive as at the Somme, they practised a strong concentration in order to secure superiority in the air in the limited sector of the front where the action took place. Prudence was recommended in scouting and patrol work; thus, if on the offensive, the order was that at the hour determined upon all available machines should rise together to a low altitude, divide into two distinct fleets, the chasing units flying above the rest. Then the two fleets were to make for the point of attack, getting higher as they went and engage the enemy above the lines with the utmost energy, not giving up the pursuit until they reached the French lines, where danger from anti-aircraft batteries would be too great. (It is to be remarked that the German offensive did not include fighting over the enemy's line!)

OBSERVATION AND PHOTOGRAPHY THE MOST IMPORTANT FUNCTIONS.

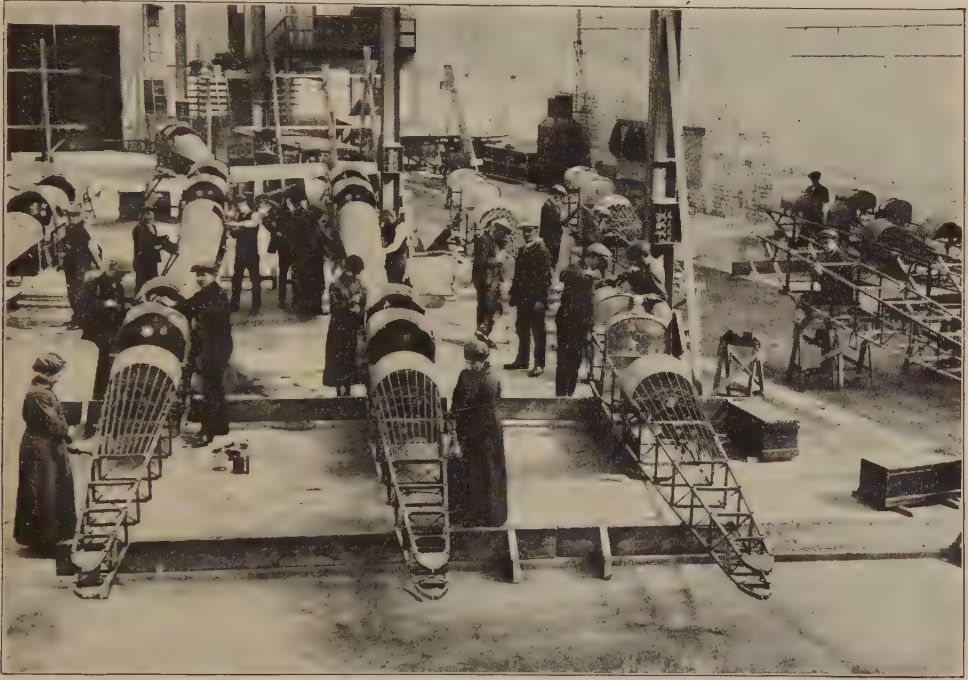
Fighting slackened at the end of May and a new offensive, the Second Battle of Flanders, began at the end of July and raged until the following winter. In this battle the British under Plumer and Gough were supported by the French army under General Anthoine. By the middle of June, the Germans, warned by the formidable French and British preparations, had brought additional aeroplanes and sausages to the Flanders front. Through July terrible contests took place in the air, some of them duels, others battles between strong squadrons, as for instance on July 13, where there were as many as thirty machines on each side. In this fight the Germans lost fifteen machines. All this fighting was, of course, to secure for the side gaining

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the advantage the initiative in reconnaissance, bombing, photography and infantry control work, for after all observation was the most important function of aircraft.

During the course of the big offensive in the Ypres sector, August, 1917, *The Times* correspondent wrote of the artillery and aeroplane work: "During the last few days' fighting, I have heard several times the statement that

The official French *communiqué* reported that during the week-end of August 18-19, 1917, 111 French aeroplanes had dropped 26,000 lbs. of explosive upon German railheads in the Meuse district, an eloquent tribute to the increase in the number of machines used. Similar evidence of German increase was also given by the formation flights of air-raiders over England during the summer of 1917.



IN THE SCOTTISH SHIPBUILDING YARDS

Men and women at work upon the fuselages of aeroplanes in a converted shipbuilding yard in Scotland. Manufacture of the different parts of the plane was carried on in special factories and the parts put together in assembling factories. The Handley-Page alone involved 100,000 separate parts and the magnitude of the manufacturing may be imagined.

British Official.

in the course of the battle the fire of the German batteries actually grew perceptibly and continuously less as they were put out of action by our guns. This is quite credible. In the course of a single day, our artillery guided by our aeroplanes silenced 73 hostile batteries. Observation showed 21 gun-pits entirely destroyed and 35 others badly damaged. Eighteen explosions of ammunition stores were caused and fifteen other fires. These are only the items of air work in a single day of battle, but their influence on the course of victory is obviously enormous."

GERMAN EFFORTS TO SECURE CONTROL OF THE AIR FOR 1918.

Then the battles of Flanders died down into winter rain and mud, and once more the belligerents took stock of their assets for a spring offensive. Ludendorff and von Hindenburg met the *Reichstag* in secret session and promised speedy victory. Production in all branches was speeded up for the final effort and in the early spring of 1918 Germany possessed about eighty-five squadrons of fighting planes (about 1100 machines), and perhaps an equal number attached to the army for pur-

poses of photography, reconnaissance, infantry contact and artillery control. A great effort was made to develop the bombarding planes; the inhabitants of Dunkirk, Nancy, London, and even of Paris were victims of these improvements as the radius of action of the Gothas and Friedrichshafens was increased to 300 kilometers from home, and their bomb-carrying capacity to 800 kilograms (nearly a ton). In the Gotha, advance in speed and manoeuvring ability was backed up by improvement in armament, namely a third machine gun which was mounted under the fuselage so as to eliminate all dead angles of fire.

With the wireless, the Germans had the macrophone, a device which highly intensified sounds in the receiving telephone and made them audible in spite of engines, vibration and wind. The Allies also developed similar devices. The generator employed with the wireless was—with customary German system—put to good use in cold weather or in great altitudes in heating the resistance wires woven into the aviator's clothing. With sighting also the enemy began to employ highly efficient sighting instruments made by well-known optical firms like Zeiss and Goertz. Instrument and auxiliary tables allowed of rapid calculation of the angle of fire required, took into account wind, speed and height, guided the pilot just over his objective and automatically warned the bombardier of the precise moment to release his bombs. An ingenious invention, aimed at discounting camouflage, was the air-scout's stereoscopic camera of great power and sharpness. Built into the body at a point where it commanded an unobstructed view of the ground below, its lens could discover from an altitude of two miles whether trenches or batteries were actual or only hollow shams.

THE GREAT WEIGHT-LIFTING MACHINES OF THE YEAR.

Another German development of 1918 was the new Fokker triplane. This, though not so fast as some of the other pursuit planes, had a climbing speed which excelled that of any

other machine at the front and rendered its attack particularly vigorous from below. In the spring drive the enemy used these triplanes in large numbers, frequently as many as twenty or thirty at a time.

The growing importance of twin or multiple-engined aeroplanes was a significant feature of aerial construction on both sides. Further, in 1918, the "ceiling," or the elevation at which planes must be able to fly, was increased from 16,000 to 18,000, and then well above 20,000 feet. The improvement in the range and accuracy of the anti-aircraft gun made this necessary. A slow machine with a high ceiling could use its power to climb out of range and dive upon its victim, or evade the unwelcome attentions of anti-aircraft guns.

Germany, and later the Allies also, constructed giant aeroplanes (*Riesenflugzeug*) of about 1000-1400 h. p. with a weight-lifting capacity of two tons. This product points to what was one of the greatest developments of 1918—namely the far-extended, continuous bombing expeditions against enemy *matériel*. The casualties from air-raids in Great Britain were heavy during 1917, and the Germans bombed British and French back areas with marked pertinacity during 1918. The great British camp at Étaples suffered seven hundred casualties in six weeks. But though 2,465 projectiles were dropped by the enemy on Allied lines and on towns behind the lines in March, British bombardiers alone dropped on enemy territory 38,118 bombs, or sixteen times as many. April saw increased German activity, but nevertheless British bomb-dropping was still ahead at the rate of twelve to one.

THE BRITISH ORGANIZE THE INDEPENDENT AIR FORCE.

In April, the Independent Air Force was formed under General Trenchard, with the function of raiding German industrial centres in the Rhineland and Westphalia, in order to strike at the enemy's sources of supply. Much fighting took place and the I. A. F. lost 109 machines within six months, yet it accomplished a great deal both in material destruction and moral

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effect. As early as October, 1917, raids had been begun by three squadrons in the Nancy area and this nucleus was later developed into the Independent Force as supplementary to the Royal Air Force of Great Britain. During the early period, from October, 1917, to June 5, 1918, fifty-seven attacks were made on the Rhine-land, including day and night attacks on Cologne, Stuttgart, Mannheim, Mainz and Coblenz. In June, Trenchard decided to attack as many of the large centres as it was possible to reach, and the weather for the first three months was extremely favorable for this long-distance bombing, but during September, October, and the first ten days of November it could hardly have been worse for this particular work. During the summer, the force was equipped with the large Handley-Page bombing machines. The total weight of bombs dropped between June 6 and November 10 was over five hundred tons, of which 160 tons were dropped by day and 390 tons by night. At the end of June it was apparent that the enemy was increasing his number of fighting machines and during September and October the day-bombing squadrons had to fight practically from the front line to their objective and from there home again. This necessitated the most careful keeping of formation in order to avoid undue casualties as, once the formation was split up, the enemy's machines could attack individual machines at their leisure. The Black Forest region and some forty towns including Baden, Frankfurt, Karlsruhe, Mainz, Stuttgart and Wiesbaden were attacked. Towards the end of the summer a group was established in England for the purpose of bombing Berlin and other centres, but its machines were only ready

three days before the signing of the armistice.

A DESCRIPTION OF A NIGHT BOMBING RAID.

The Independent Force at the request of Marshal Foch co-operated



CAPTAIN WILLIAM A. BISHOP WITH AN OFFICIAL
RECORD OF 72 GERMAN MACHINES

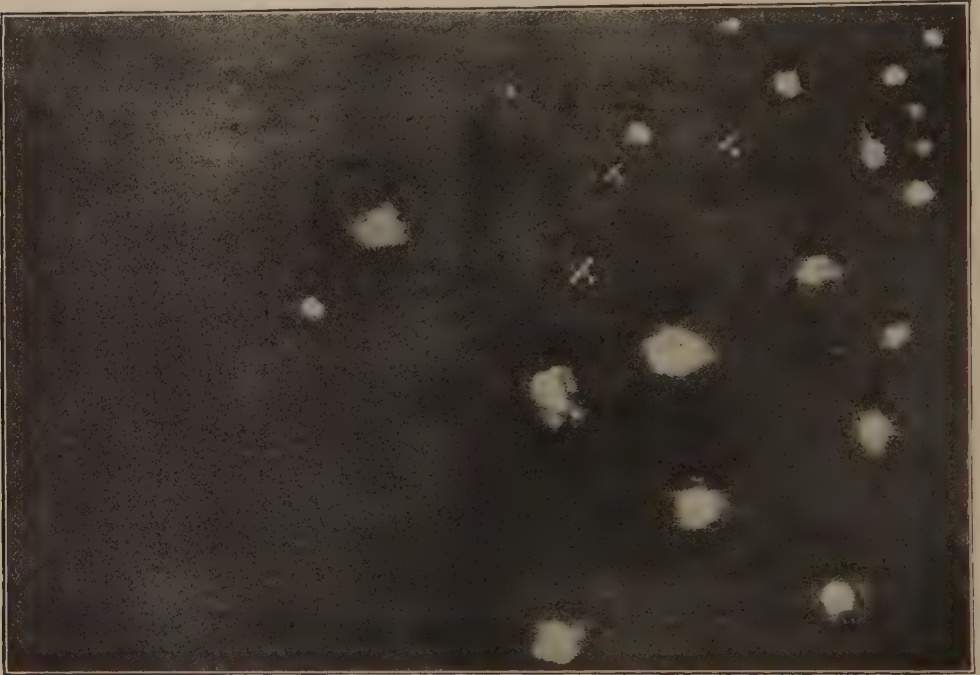
© Underwood & Underwood.

with the American First Army in its attack on the St. Mihiel salient, and it further co-operated with the armies by attacking important railway junctions behind the French lines in the combined offensive of September 26. The following descriptive account of one of the bombing raids into Germany illustrates the general nature of this kind of expedition, whether it was un-

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dertaken by French or British aviators. "Back on the green aerodrome, miles behind the lines, the big bombers were prepared for their raid. Rows of huge machines stood waiting for the finishing touches, looking in the twilight like great birds roosting on the ground. To one side were the smaller fighting aeroplanes who would escort the raiders on their long flight over Ger-

be dimly distinguished, with ponds and streams dimly gleaming through the night. They crossed the fighting lines at an immense altitude, untroubled by 'Archie' or any other terror of the sky, steadily humming toward the big German town which was that night's objective. After a good two-hour's flight a signal flared from the leading machine. The Rhine



PERILS OF THE SKY

A remarkable picture, made by one of the official British artists at the front, of "Archies" or shells from anti-aircraft guns bursting round aeroplanes. The range of these guns grew longer and longer until in 1918 they were effective at a height of 15,000 feet. The Germans were the first to perfect satisfactory range-finders.

man territory. Tanks had already been filled, and now the huge bombs were wheeled out on trollies and fitted to the underside of the planes; belts and drums of ammunition were placed ready to use, and the engines run up to see that all was in order.

"A little before dark the pilots and gunners arrived by twos and threes. Each officer carefully examined his particular part of the machine and one by one the aeroplanes left the ground in the gathering dusk and began at once to climb. Last of all the escorting machines went up. Mile after mile they flew through the darkness. Below, the faint outlines of fields and roads could

was at hand, and everyone prepared for action. Guns were fingered tenderly, bomb-releases looked to, and sights adjusted.

BOMBERS AND FIGHTING PLANES BOTH NECESSARY FOR SUCCESS.

"Then the first searchlight picked up the formation, and a moment later the sky was covered with puffs of smoke; shrapnel shrieked through the air, and long, wavering beams flashed hither and thither to aid the German gunners at their task. Down went the noses of the machines as they dived through the barrage, each pilot intent on keeping his place in the formation and hoping that a stray shot might

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not reach his engine. The fighters remained on high, waiting for the German aeroplanes which would soon arrive out of the darkness. Another signal flashed out, and factories and railway stations were now within easy range. One by one and in salvos, the pilots planted their bombs. Muffled roars from below announced the arrival of tons of high explosive; red flashes showed where the explosions took

the escorting fighters had waited for. Diving through the night, they fell on their foes, shooting at close range, sending two of the Germans down in flames, to add to the terror of the town below. 'Archie' meanwhile had died away; there was as much danger of hitting friends as of bringing down foes in the wild turmoil which now filled the night.

"At last all the bombs were dropped.



ITALIAN AIRMEN SNOW LEAFLETS OVER VIENNA

A shower of leaflets falling over Vienna during the raid made by a squadron of Italian aeroplanes under Major Gabriele D'Annunzio, August 9, 1918. This striking picture taken by one of the raiding airmen, shows St. Stephen's Cathedral in the top right hand corner, and even reveals the lines of the colored tiles of the roof.

place. At one place a huge sheet of flame shot upwards, tinting half the heavens with a rosy glow. A moment later a louder boom showed the cause of the fire—the main object of the raid had been achieved: the munition factory hit and a conflagration started. Up to this point the work of the raiders had been simple. Then the German night pilots came on the scene, endeavoring to break up the formation and overpower the bombers singly instead of attacking them when they were well able to defend themselves. This was precisely the chance which

Several fires glowed in the town and at least one terrific series of explosions proved that the heart of the target had been reached. The signal to retire was given, and the formation withdrew, whilst the escort acted as a rearguard to drive off any foes who were venturesome enough to follow. Another terrific burst of shell fire greeted them as they left the town, but no damage was done and the barrage gradually died down as the machines drew out of range. Westward flew the formation, each aeroplane maintaining its position in line. Overhead the stars glimmered,

and nothing now disturbed the peace of the night except the roar of the powerful engines.

"When halfway home the leader descried another formation looming out of the darkness. He signaled to his flock to be on the alert, for he did not know whether it would prove to consist of friends or foes. The approaching machines drew closer, and were at last distinguished for bombers, like themselves, bound to the same town which had just suffered, but was to suffer again shortly."

BOMBING OF GERMAN TOWNS IN REPRISAL FOR PREVIOUS RAIDS.

Such work as was done by the I. A. F. in the Rhineland and by the French over southeast Germany was in the nature of reprisal for the raids over England and France in which Germany seemed to aim at lowering the morale of civilians rather than at destruction of enemy material. It is not possible in such a chapter as this to give a detailed history of all the raids carried out by airship and aeroplane over England, who was the chief sufferer. Nevertheless a glance at some of the figures and results of these activities is of interest. Between January 19-20, 1915, and April 13, 1918, which witnessed the last airship raid, 556 persons were killed, of whom 58 only were combatants, 171 were women, and 110 children. Out of a total of 1357 injured there were 121 combatants, 431 women and 218 children. April, 1916, saw seven separate raids which extended over the East and North counties of England and in Scotland. The discontinuance of the raids after April, 1918, was probably due to improved anti-aircraft defenses.

A GERMAN RAIDER'S ACCOUNT OF A RAID ON LONDON.

This enthusiastic account of these slaughters is from the pen of Mathey after his bombardment of London:

"London, seen at night from a great height is a fairy picture. . . . That night all appeared peaceful and quiet. In the twinkling of an eye, the change came. A narrow band of brilliant light burst forth suddenly and began to search the sky. A second and a third

appeared and soon criss-crossed each other like shining ribbons. Sighted from above by a Zeppelin, it seemed as though the city rudely awakened was raising its arms to heaven and throwing out tentacles against the danger that was threatening.

"I visited St. Paul's and from this point made for the Bank. Over it, I shouted through the megaphone to my lieutenant: 'Aim slowly.' Now with the dull sound and rapid flash of cannon fire was mingled the explosion and bursts of flame caused by our bombs. Arrived over Liverpool Street Station I telephoned 'Fire in salvos' and the bombs began to rain down. Some shells burst near us. . . . This was really the most fortunate and satisfying of my raids over London."

MEASURES FOR DEFENSE NEVER BECOME REALLY EFFECTIVE.

In aeroplane raids by far the worst year was 1917 and it was after this that the I. A. F. rather reluctantly undertook its reprisals. The French undertook such operations much earlier, soon after the first raids on Paris. In 1917 alone, twenty-seven separate attacks, for the most part undertaken on moonlit nights, were delivered over London and the southeast counties; 878 persons were killed, of whom 536 were civilians, and 1551 injured, 1211 of them non-combatants. In all four years of the war 2,907 people were killed and 2,050 injured by aeroplane attack.

No such advance in aerial defense was made during the war as in measures for attack. It is a truism in military science that the side which loses the initiative and is forced into the defensive is well on its way to defeat. This is strikingly evident in aerial warfare. Once the raiders have been able to come together and start, it will take a very large organization to cope with them, and even then some will get through. Half a dozen attacking machines might prevent a squadron from starting by raiding them in their sheds, when it would take a hundred planes to deal with the same number in the air. Other counter-offensive measures such as high-angle anti-aircraft

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guns, high-powered searchlights, and balloon aprons were added to and improved upon during the struggle. The balloon aprons reduced the space to be covered by anti-aircraft barrage fire against the raiders. To make them, a row of kite balloons was sent up, their mooring cables connected by cross cables from which hung wires kept taut by small weights at their

the greatest precaution, and illumination of great cities was reduced and even abolished. Various ways of warning of the approach of hostile craft were used at different periods: Paris making use for a time of bugles, London of sound signals or flares; and warning placards with "Take Cover" written upon them in red letters were exhibited through the streets by police on motor-



A GREAT MECHANICAL BIRD OF PREY

This picture, taken on the Western Front, is a huge R. A. F. long distance Handley-Page bombing machine, being got into position by a motor tractor. The performance table shows a speed at ground level of 97 miles per hour, that it can climb to 7000 feet in 18 minutes, 10 seconds, or to 10,000 feet in 29 minutes, and to its "ceiling" of 14,000 feet in 60 minutes.

British Official Photo.

ends. These formed a screen from the ground up to the height at which the balloons were anchored and an uncertain hazard to be avoided at all costs by the hovering birds of prey.

THE STREETS OF LONDON AND PARIS IN DARKNESS.

The defenses of Paris were better organized earlier than those of London, and partly for this reason, partly because of French retaliation, and partly because they had to fly over the French lines to reach it, Paris enjoyed greater immunity. Of merely palliative measures against aerial attack, darkness during night raids was recognized as

cycles. Public buildings were thrown open for cover, while the governments provided sandbags, and local authorities saw to their disposal in windows and apertures of the buildings thrown open to the public. The underground tube railways, in London and Paris, were used by people whose dwelling-places were flimsy. Measures for the suppression of fires were taken, and special fire-brigades organized. Finally, the governments, both of France and Britain, inaugurated a special scheme for insurance of property against aircraft and bombardment risks, and from national relief funds

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assisted victims of raids with shelter, food, and money.

THE INFLUENCE OF CAMOUFLAGE OR PROTECTIVE COLORATION.

On the fronts, of course, none of these counter-measures, with the exception of anti-aircraft guns and opposing aeroplanes, were in use. Friendly darkness could not be relied upon to any degree, for the use of star-shells

out among neighboring woods and fields. To conceal such objects as barracks, depôts, and cantonments, all use was made of natural shelter such as forests, and the illusion was completed by painting the roofs. Camouflage constructed false batteries, false intrenchments, false observation posts. The art could only be successfully applied to small objectives; it was not



WILD GOOSE FORMATION

Sixteen planes flying in battle formation, Rockwell Field, San Diego, California. The development of formation flying restored the single-place machine to favor, as the formation had no blind spot—the principal objection to the single seater. The end of the war found the one-man airplane more useful than ever.

United States Official.

and illuminating flares broke up its cover at most disconcerting moments. By 1917 protective coloring, *camouflage* or artificial mimicry, which would conceal military objects and *matériel* from aerial vision, was much practised. This new art, born of the war, manifested itself under every conceivable form and in any way that ingenuity could devise. Its purpose was to give to suspicious objects the appearance of their surroundings. A trench under construction could be camouflaged by covering it with painted linen; hangars were so colored that their lines and the shadows they threw would not stand

possible by day to camouflage a station or a town, but these at night must seek the cloak of invisibility. Just as an insect or animal will rest perfectly immobile to deceive the hunter, so automobiles and horses remained immobile at the roadside or under trees, artillery and infantry packed under cover, and trains shut off steam when aeroplane reconnaissance was expected. The enemy rarely moved his troops in day-time, and whenever possible effected a concentration under cover of a forest. Such a practice was not new in war. Concealment of movements from the enemy has always been important.

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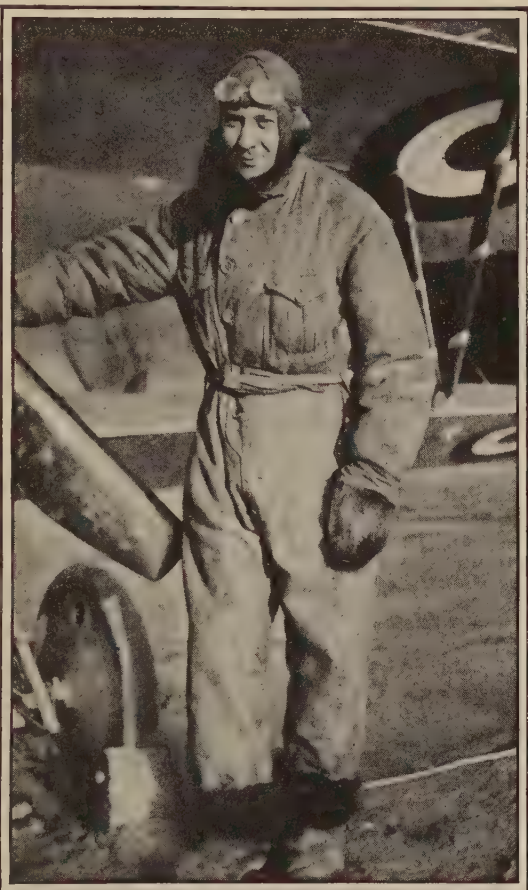
THE AIR SERVICE AIDS IN OPPOSING THE FINAL DRIVES.

In the spring of 1918 the German aerial machine was ready earlier than the Allied in preparation for the supreme effort to break the Allied lines. It is possible that if the Allies had possessed a thousand more bombing and fighting aeroplanes in service in March, they could have prevented the German aviators from mapping the Allied positions, and have stopped the massing of such a huge body of troops as Germany had prepared for this drive. This, however, was an enormous task. To keep 1000 aviators upon the field entailed a 40 per cent replacement in men, and 100-300 per cent in machines monthly, or 400 new aviators per month to keep 1000 men operating day and night. Machines were used up rapidly and in large numbers, and numberless spare parts were necessary. Anti-aircraft guns were accurate at this time at a height of 15,000 feet, and a speed up to 140 miles per hour was necessary so that in landing at such a rate much damage was often done.

Before the German attack, British airmen had observed that rail and road communications were being improved and ammunition and supply dumps increased along the whole front from Flanders to the Oise. Raids undertaken during these weeks established the arrival of fresh enemy divisions, though no idea could be got of the real German strength. On March 21, under cover of a thick fog, the attack was launched with irresistible force against the British Third and Fifth Armies. The British were forced back almost to Amiens. "In this and subsequent fighting the debt of the British infantry to the Royal Air Force could not be over-estimated. So long as the light endured they kept at bay all enemy machines, which otherwise might have discerned the nakedness of the land." On the 26th in face of the crisis Foch was given the task of coördinating operations in the west.

THE TIDE TURNS AND THE GERMANS RETREAT.

There followed in quick succession through April, May, and June an almost uninterrupted series of formidable battles; in April the enemy tried to break through the British front in Flanders, on May 27 to pierce the



JIM MCCONNELL, AMERICAN AVIATOR IN FLYING CLOTHES

French centre on the Aisne, on the following days to push forward to the West in the direction of Paris, and finally on June 9 he tried once more to break down the front between Montdidier and Noyon. The Allies paid heavy toll but the Germans lost colossally. By this time the Americans were coming into line and Foch, now in supreme command, faced the climax of the battle with an easier mind. Sir Douglas Haig's so-called Victory Dis-

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patch writes of the air-forces during these anxious days, "The assistance given to our infantry by our low-flying airplanes during the battles of March and April was repeated during the German offensives on the Aisne and Marne, on both of which occasions British squadrons were dispatched to the French battlefield and did very gallant service."

THE AIRMEN WITH THE AMERICAN ARMIES.

In September the American army carried the St. Mihiel salient which had threatened France for four years. After the bombardment, squadrons of low-flying aeroplanes accompanied the infantry and the tanks. The first afternoon (September 12) a dispatch reports, "Not a single Boche plane in



SIGNOR CAPRONI AND CHIEFS OF ALLIED STAFF

Italian engineers were thoroughly competent, and Italian designers notably inventive but they lacked the coal and metal needed for quantity production. They had to rely to some extent on their allies who had been more amply provided with resources. They furnished in return inspiring ideas and admirable designs, so that Mr. Handley-Page and Signor Caproni vied with each other and with Mr. Holt Thomas in the construction of great cargo-carrying machines.

Publishers' Photo Service.

In mid-July, again at the Marne, the tide turned and Foch began his series of attacks which finally drove the Germans headlong toward the Rhine. During the German retreat the Allied airmen were everywhere breaking up the vain attempts to concentrate troops, bombing lines of communication and river crossings, blowing up ammunition dumps, and even putting artillery out of action.

the sky." General Pershing's *communiqué* of the 14th said: "French pursuit, bombing and reconnaissance units and British and Italian units, divided with our own Air Service the control of the air, and contributed materially to the success of the operations."

In the succeeding Meuse-Argonne battle lasting forty-seven days the airmen did valiant work. "The Air

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Service employed was largely American though about forty of the most experienced French airmen assisted, as well as an Italian night-bombing group. September 26, 508 aeroplanes were available for service; on Armistice Day, 475. The total number of American aeroplanes shot down was 199, and 22 American balloons. Nearly 400 enemy machines were brought down and about 50 balloons."

During the whole war British airmen destroyed 755 enemy planes and lost 357; destroyed 71 balloons and lost 43.

HOW MANY AEROPLANES WERE THERE AT THE FRONT?

The German Armies were given no rest all along the front and steadily lost ground. Take this British report for November 5 as an example of what was occurring all down the long line: "Throughout the day the roads packed with the enemy's troops and transport afforded excellent targets to the airmen, who took full advantage of their opportunities, despite the unfavorable weather. Over thirty guns, which bombs and machine guns from the air had forced the enemy to abandon, were captured by a battalion of the 25th Division near Le Preseau."

Sir Douglas Haig in his Victory Dispatch says that the Royal Air Forces between January 1, 1918 and the Armistice destroyed 2953 hostile airplanes and 241 German balloons. Nearly

1200 more enemy machines were driven down out of control.

Estimates of the aircraft strength on the front were always uncertain, due to variation in the estimates of the number of planes in a squadron, but one estimate of the Allied strength on November 11, 1918, is as follows:

France	3000
Great Britain	2100
United States	740
Italy	600
	6440

These figures represent fighting planes equipped ready for service, but do not include replacement machines at the front or in depôts, or training machines in France. Many other thousands had crashed to the ground or had been superseded by better models. The total number of machines constructed is unknown.

THE AIR SERVICE VALUABLE ON EVERY FRONT.

Though more machines were used upon the Western Front than elsewhere, airmen assisted on every front. On the Eastern and Italian Fronts, at Saloniki, in Mesopotamia, in Egypt, in the Balkans, and in the African campaigns, the Air Service was a valuable arm. In no other branch was so much progress made, and in daring it was unsurpassed.



ONE OF A MIGHTY QUARTETTE OF GERMAN DREADNOUGHTS

The Thüringen, the Ostfriesland, the Helgoland and the Oldenburg were all constructed according to the same plans and were completed only a few years before the beginning of the Great War. Each carried ten 12-inch and twelve 6-inch guns, and had six torpedo tubes. The Ostfriesland, badly injured in the Jutland fight, was turned over to the United States, to be studied by the naval constructors.



THE PRIDE OF THE GERMAN NAVY

When the battle cruiser Seydlitz was laid down in 1910 the Germans believed that it would be an exceedingly successful type. It had not only a thick armor belt but also carried ten 11-inch guns, fourteen 6-inch, and four torpedo tubes. The engine power was nevertheless high enough to produce a speed of 26.5 knots.

Ruschin.



Berlin's New Cathedral and the Royal Palace

CHAPTER LVII

The German Empire at War

THE ATTEMPT TO MOBILIZE ALL THE FACTORS IN NATIONAL LIFE FOR THE WAR

"WHAT made this war different from all others was the manner in which the nations supported and reinforced their armed forces with all the resources at their disposal," declares General Ludendorff. And he continues, "It was impossible to distinguish where the sphere of the army and navy began and that of the people ended. Army and people were one. The world witnessed the War of Nations in the most literal sense of the word. The great powers of the earth faced one another in united concentrated strength."

GENERAL LUDENDORFF BLAMES THE CIVIL GOVERNMENT FOR THE GERMAN DEFEAT.

In reviewing his country's experiences, the German commander makes clear his own conviction that the responsibility for failure lay largely with the government at Berlin, which, in a struggle demanding the utmost effort of every individual, kept the people in ignorance of the supreme necessity resting upon them. He accuses the heads of government of being unable "to steel their wills to the point of magnetizing the whole nation and directing its life and thought to the single idea of war and victory," an accomplishment which was achieved by "the great democracies of the Entente."

VON TIRPITZ JOINS IN DENOUNCING THE CIVIL ADMINISTRATION.

Because of the failure of the War Chancellors, the former Chief of Staff has explained that "the mind of the German people remained rudderless and uncaptured, the prey of every influence that came." Under another metaphor, Admiral von Tirpitz, when fretting in enforced inactivity, expressed the same feeling. "Germany was," he said, "as in Luther's day, 'a fine horse, needing but one thing, a rider'." In the first months of the war the Admiral groaned with dismay over the Chancellor "oscillating in murky uncertainty," longed to have "Fredericus Rex" come down from heaven with his walking-stick, and wondered how Bismarck could refrain from stepping off his pedestal to set things right. His indignation and apprehension burst forth in words like these: "Such a lack of strong personality in the upper ranks at a time when the nation's achievement is so colossal, is astounding, and demonstrates a great blot on our statecraft, which will avenge itself bitterly, sooner or later." He went on: "Perhaps the people and the power of the people will save us. It is all up now with the rule of caste and class. Victory or defeat, we shall get pure democracy."

These, then, were the views of the

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military leader and the Naval Secretary of State, as to the incompetency of the political leaders of their country. The former, pinning all his faith to the ideal of "an inflexible and centralized system of Imperial Government, which in its essence must be military" (the words are not his own), used his influence to energize the political heads, while he bemoaned their lack of comprehension and control. As for the Admiral, frothing and fuming because his fleet, the result of his life's labor, was being kept in "cotton wool," he assures us that he was frequently attacked as a pessimist because he was the only officer in the G. H. Q. who did not believe that the war would be over before April 1, 1915.

THE WORLD THOUGHT GERMANY A MARVEL OF EFFICIENCY.

But the spectacle presented to the world at large gave a far different impression. It showed no sign of vacillation, uncertainty, discord, or division. There appeared, instead, solid ranks of determined, efficient military millions, excellently prepared, powerfully equipped, stepping confidently forward to anticipated conquest. Nor were the unity and enthusiasm of the people only apparent. The first reaction of the nation was an eager offering of their energies to the work of defending their land from the attacks of malevolent foes (for so were they led to regard the war). In an after-war article a German writer assures us that the German people entered the conflict "an absolute unit." And General Ludendorff, looking back with the perspective furnished by three years of hard struggle, wrote, "In 1914 we were aglow with patriotism, self-sacrifice, and confidence in our own strength. We now (in 1917) needed fresh energy and impulse to make the German people forget the years of suffering and distress, of bitterness and disappointment; replenish it with ardor, strength, and confidence, and enable it to imbue its fighting forces with fresh enthusiasm."

In 1916, in his paper, *Die Hilfe*, Herr Friedrich Naumann published an article frankly acknowledging the change

in spirit resulting from two years of experience that had opened men's eyes to what war really is—years in which death and privation greater than the imagination could conceive had come to dwell among them. "Hence," he said, "the impression easily arises that one has been pushed into something which one did not really desire." In this way, according



"AUF WIEDERSEHEN"

to his explanation, had been bred a distrust of the small for the great, a feeling that the people at the top had needed the war and had required those in the lower ranks to bear the heavy burden. A soldier of the Landsturm was quoted as saying, "It must be explained to the people quite simply and intelligibly why they are still fighting, because they do not know."

THE TRIALS WHICH BROKE THE GERMAN UNITY.

Between the days when the populace jubilantly turned their faces toward the war-god and followed his beckoning finger, in the expectation of a brief and successful campaign, and those later days when grief and care and de-

jection had closed in about them, lay months of varied pursuits and strange developments. Instead of *der Tag* ("the day") and *der Krieg* ("the war"), words that sang themselves into many conversations in the early phases of the great experience, were heard wistful or grumbling murmurs of *Friede* ("peace"), *Essen* ("food") and *Steuern* ("taxes").

THE WHOLE INDUSTRIAL SYSTEM AT THE SERVICE OF THE STATE.

The advantages of a highly developed military system were demonstrated in the adjustment to war conditions that at once took place in the Empire. The course of civil life fell under direction by local military authorities as minute and systematic as that of the army's movements under



ANTON LANG, POTTER, AT HIS BENCH

To Oberammergau in the beautiful Bavarian highlands the war brought loss and sorrow as to other villages. But the rumors that reached the outer world were not all true. Though other Langs and their neighbors fought and fell, Anton Lang, known as widely as the Passion Play in which he had been the *Christus*, was living quietly at home. So were others of the older characters, reported to have been killed. Underwood & Underwood

Must we conclude that the heart of the people lacked the "spirit that quickeneth"? An American, in close touch with the life of the country, has said, "Somehow the German always made me feel that his war determination had been organized for him." There was firm foundation for such an impression in the stern control of the press and the people's unquestioning acceptance of its statements; in the official regulation of flag-flying and celebration; in the ubiquitous warnings against spies; and in the careful marshalling of all neutrals resident in the country.

its officers; for the whole machinery of the State was placed under military disposal at once, and the industrial life of the nation had to be reorganized to serve the purposes of war. This was comparatively simple in a land where every male citizen of military age was a potential soldier. General von Falkenhayn claims, "The adjustment of science and engineering, the reconstruction of the whole of industry in the interests of the war, with due regard for their indispensable work, took place almost noiselessly, so that they were accomplished before the enemy quite knew what was happening."

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The concentration of interest and effort on the one, new, all-important objective required the cutting off of non-essentials. For the efficient control and distribution of labor a joint industrial committee for the Empire was formed, with special separate committees for the special industries. By means of good labor exchanges, and with the presence of military force to prevent any serious trouble, the changes were effected successfully. One new feature in the industrial situation in Germany, as in other countries, was the introduction into many occupations of women in considerable numbers. In spite of the efficiency of the labor system, unemployment was a serious problem, especially during the first months of the war.

THE FAR-REACHING EFFECTS OF THE RATHENAU PLAN.

As Germany was not economically prepared for a long struggle of the tremendous dimensions prescribed by modern war plans, and as the intervention of England meant inevitably a breaking off of most of the foreign trade, it became immediately necessary to take thought about supplies of food and of raw materials. Every scrap must serve to the utmost of its usefulness. What was in the country must be kept, and plans must be made for securing as much as might be had from conquered areas and from neutral sources.

Under the advice and direction of Dr. Walter Rathenau, who was at the head of an extensive electrical company, a remarkable economic mobilization was worked out. A bureau, with thirty-six sub-divisions, was created in connection with the Ministry of War. First, the total resources of the country were investigated and recorded. The distribution and use of all raw materials and half-manufactured products were carefully considered and planned. New and improved methods were sought to increase and hasten production. In cases where the materials were likely to fail, with outside supplies cut off, chemists were set at work on the problem of producing substitutes. The official personnel for so great an

undertaking was necessarily very large. Not without questioning and opposition was the new régime accepted in the industrial world, but "matters were arranged" and the great machinery of economic dictatorship set in motion.

HOW THE PLAN WORKED OUT IN TYPICAL CASES.

In practical operation the plan was somewhat as follows. The government took into its own hands all establishments and processes that might be adapted to war uses, all raw material already in the possession of manufacturers and dealers, all administrators and scientists with specialized ability for solving the problems of the time. The industries were classified and an inventory of all stock was made. "Then to a manufacturer of cloth, or metal, the dictator would say: 'Your factory and your stock of raw material are now absolutely in the hands of the State. In order that the transition may not be too violent, you may have 10 per cent of your own raw material for private use during January and 5 per cent during February; after that you are to fill only war orders for the State'."

When the establishments and their specially-trained brains had been commandeered by the government, manufacturers were called upon to turn the attention of their laboratory workers toward the production of certain needed materials or their substitutes. At different times, consultations upon the results of their experiments were held. In some cases extraordinary success was achieved; in others, the problem was too difficult to be satisfactorily worked out. In the matter of nickel and rubber, both of which were very scarce, there were no very helpful results. However, substitutes were found which could be used instead of cotton in manufacturing high explosives; a chemical equivalent of saltpetre, obtained from nitrogen gas, relieved the situation when it became impossible to get the usual supplies of saltpetre from South America; and zinc wire was successfully used instead of copper for conducting electricity.



WORKING HAND IN HAND WITH THE ARMY

Great numbers of women were employed in the munition factories where they had at least the protection of fire-proof buildings. The workers shown here were occupied in preparing wicker cases as receptacles for heavy shells. They had become a part of "the impeiling force behind Germany's soldier millions."



STEPPING INTO THE BREACH

From the amused interest shown by the onlookers we may conclude that this picture was made before the sight of women workers employed at men's tasks had become familiar. As the men were drawn off for service at the front, their posts were taken by women, until no one was surprised to see Frau Fensterputzerin ("Mrs. Window Cleaner"), Frau Kneiperin ("Mrs. Ticket Puncher"), or Frau Briefträgerin ("Mrs. Letter Carrier").

Henry Ruschin

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THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY THE MOST SUCCESSFUL OF ALL.

Dr. Rathenau himself says of the chemical industry that, in spite of the difficulty it had in accommodating itself to "the first measures which had to be taken, it has perhaps achieved the highest place among our war industries for boldness, initiative, and inventive power. Nearly every week," he continues, "produced new arrangements. We began with metals, and after that came chemicals, jute, wool, worsted goods, India rubber, cotton, leather, skins, flax, linen and horse-hair. These industries were arranged partly on the basis of limited companies, partly on the basis of discount companies."

The War Companies formed by the German banks for the various industries received orders from the State, placed contracts with manufacturers, attended to the buying and selling of raw materials, and financed the business at a regulated rate of profit. It is estimated that, before long, eighty per cent of the German industries were engaged either directly or indirectly in the service of war.

THE ATTEMPT TO ERADICATE WAR-PROFITEERING.

The scandal of war-profiteering next demanded attention from the government, which promised to levy special taxes upon war profits after the war. Ludendorff frankly admits that self-seeking and profit-hunting were firmly rooted. There is a note of explanation, perhaps of apology, in Dr. Rathenau's statements published in 1916:—"We have accepted the war orders, not to enrich ourselves, but partly to replace our lost peace orders and, above all, to serve the nation. We would not have been able to do this upon such a big scale if we had not had at our disposal the means laid up as the result of a careful policy of dividend distribution extending over many years."

And, further, "We all approve of the tax on war profits because no one should enrich himself through the war. During the war, when thousands are laying down their lives and other thousands sacrificing their property,

comes the time for retrenchment, reflection and renunciation. Nevertheless, the fiscal screw should not be turned too far. The strength of our industry depends upon bold enterprise, and the confidence of this daring spirit in the future should not be diminished too much."

PREPARATIONS TO DEVELOP BUSINESS AFTER THE WAR.

The last sentence indicates a policy that concerned the business leaders in the country even in the midst of war conditions and pursuits. They were looking forward to readjustments after the return of peace. How Germany would hold her own in a world where she had created so much hostility toward herself was no simple problem.

To meet such disadvantages as resuming trade with a greatly depreciated currency, steps were taken toward developing industrial co-operation on an unprecedented and enormous scale. The government made announcement that comprehensive industrial associations would not only receive State support but that their formation would be forwarded. An "Imperial Commissioner" for after-the-war trade problems was appointed. Syndication proceeded with unusual rapidity and assumed greater proportions than before. An instance of this was the practical combination of all the aniline dyes syndicates into one body. Another was the development of huge coal combinations by Germans in Austria.

Industry, finance and shipping, too, were brought into close union, as when a coal merchant of importance became connected with the Hamburg-Amerika and North-German Lloyd lines. Men prominent as directors of banks became as well directors of great shipping companies. Plans were organized for building up the Mercantile Marine. "But it was with increasingly heavy hearts that the German industrialists pursued *preparations for victory that would square ill with defeat*, and made ready for the end of what Herr Ballin in June, 1916, impatiently described as 'the greatest, bloodiest, and also stupidest war in history'."

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LUDENDORFF FINDS THIS ELABORATE ORGANIZATION UNSATISFACTORY.

Broad, complicated and systematic as was the organization of the nation's life, it did not reach up to the ideal of General Ludendorff for one vast army of the whole people under military control and discipline. His plea was, "It is necessary to throw into the scale the last ounce of our strength, either in

anxiety. He advocated an Auxiliary Service act that would include the work of women.

THE AUXILIARY SERVICE BILL UNSATISFACTORY TO THE ARMY CHIEFS.

When the Auxiliary Service bill was passed by the Reichstag, in December, 1916, Ludendorff declared it to be "neither fish nor fowl" and not at all what the Supreme Army Command had



THE GRAND DUCHESS OF BADEN IN RED CROSS SERVICE

The forces of the German Red Cross were mobilized on the very day of the national military mobilization. They were systematically organized for service in the field and at home. Beside the sections working for the sick and wounded of the army, there were special departments for raising funds, for securing the welfare of prisoners for dealing with tuberculosis and other diseases and for producing better sanitary conditions in homes. Ruschin

the fighting line or behind the lines, in munitions work or other work at home or in government service."

Ludendorff found the system of control at home defective and unsatisfactory, and complained, as reports of shirking came to his ears, "I never was able to feel that in this respect things were as they should be for the sake of morale in the fields and at home." He felt that injustice was done the soldiers in that they received less for their services than did the workmen at home. Moreover, the separation allowances for their families were so small as to increase the burden of

desired. "For two years on end" he kept writing to the government concerning the amendment of the act and other measures for rounding up shirkers and slackers so as to release men for reinforcement of the fighting troops.

The bill created an Office of War (*Kriegsamt*) and called for the enrollment of men from sixteen to sixty years of age. Women were not to be called upon except as volunteers. In fact, in the case of men's work compulsion was to be reserved as a last resource in case volunteers did not "answer in sufficient measure" to the call.

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Financially Germany's position was different from that of other countries at war, since she was borrowing not from outside but from her own members. When it came to a question of whether the war loans were a good investment, the answer seemed to lie with the investors themselves. If they could pay their taxes, the loans were good. As someone has expressed

countries. The government itself made purchases of all necessities. Banks no longer were held to the obligation of giving gold in exchange for paper, and paper money was made legal tender. The stores of gold inspired in people and officials feelings of pride and joy.

Dr. Helfferich, who in 1915 assumed control of the Treasury, gleefully announced in the Reichstag: "The money we use, we do not use up, it is with money as with the railroads which bring us the things we need. As the railroad cars roll along, well filled, to their destinations, so the money rolls out of the Imperial Bank, and flows back into it again by way of the war loans."

Dr. Helfferich considered Great Britain's war taxation methods "antiquated" and aimed to raise the taxes in Germany only enough to keep the balance in the ordinary Imperial Budget. But the real basis of his structure was the success of German arms. All was to be made right by the indemnities to be paid into the German coffers by conquered foes after the war had been won. "The leaden weight of billions," said Herr Helfferich, "has been earned by the instigators of this war; in the future, let them, rather than we, drag them about after them." Those "instigators" he represented (in August, 1915,) as "still struggling against the thought that their cause was lost."

METALLIC MONEY DISAPPEARS ENTIRELY FROM CIRCULATION.

But "the more Dr. Helfferich explained German finance the greater was the depreciation of the mark in all neutral countries." It dropped until it "lost all relation to the gold standard." In 1915 and part of 1916 there was an appearance of prosperity owing to the large quantities of money in circulation—an "illusion of money prosperity which invariably accompanies currency inflation." No moratorium had been announced but special loan institutions had arisen and War credit banks had been established especially for the benefit of small traders. These, with other devices,



DR. HELFFERICH,

who in 1915 succeeded Herr Kühn in control of the Treasury, was a director of the Deutsche Bank, with a business man's point of view.

it, each was signing his own note. There was no speculation in war loans, although the business on the Boerse continued active.

DOCTOR HELFFERICH AND THE GERMAN FINANCIAL SITUATION.

The country's "war chest," well filled with gold and silver accumulated in past years, was passed over to the Imperial Bank, and measures were taken to keep the store from depletion. Gold was hoarded at the Reichsbank; an embargo on gold set restrictions on private trading and led to the employment of paper in payment for commodities purchased from foreign



GOLD AND SILVER OFFERINGS

The collections for war charities were so continuous that one woman living in Berlin said almost every day was tag day there. The gold collection is said to have been started by the Empress. The cash obtained for the gold and silver presented in this offering was to be used for needy widows and orphans.



FOOD FOR THE CRUCIBLES OF MARS

Out of the homes of high and low came every variety of trinket and utensil made of metal, surrendered at the call of the Government, to be molten into a common mass that would eventually be shaped into guns and shells and bullets. The school made a convenient collecting station, and the teacher's desk became a sort of altar of sacrifice, when household gods gave way before the presence of Mars.

Pictures, Henry Ruschin

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helped to sustain confidence for a time.

As the war went on and difficulties thickened, money conditions became less rosy. Paper money was employed more and more. Small change was very scarce. A correspondent arriving from Germany in 1917 said; "There is much put into circulation, but it disappears again immediately. No one can say precisely where it remains, but it is suspected that the agricultural population bury it in the earth in order not to have to change it for paper." Postage stamps, sometimes used in its place, were far from convenient, they so quickly got soiled, torn, or lost. As in industry, so in finance, the thought of the leaders was turned beyond wartime to the return of peace conditions. Schemes for contracting the currency, and the probability of peace loans were taken into consideration.

THE GROWING DIFFICULTY OF THE BUSINESS OF LIVING.

As one after another the stores of essentials became low—rubber, petrol, copper, wool, cotton, leather, and, above all, foodstuffs, fats and oils—adjustment after adjustment had to be made, until a point was reached where the people's attention was almost wholly engrossed in a frantic endeavor to meet the elementary needs of living. Heels, tires and other articles made of rubber, when worn out, were replaced by other substances. One writer, speaking of the "hitherto undiscovered potentiality of a rubber tire for wear," says, "Those on taxicabs are believed now to be indestructible. They wore out nominally months ago, and are still serving, but for looks!" This was in 1915.

Wheels, once divested of their rubber tires, were equipped with tires of cement, tires of leather disks, or tires of coiled wire. Taxicabs were largely superseded by horsecabs, though only poor horses were left. The good ones had gone into war service. Pleasure riding by automobile or bicycle was early forbidden. Later, even sorely needed transport lorries were held back for lack of petrol or proper lubricants.

When at last benzol had to be substituted for petrol, motor service and air service were greatly reduced in efficiency. Scarcity of oil meant long unlighted winter nights in country regions, imposing a condition of forced inaction that darkened mind and spirits. When to this discomfort was added cold, owing to difficulty in obtaining coal, the pulse fell lower yet. The question of coal, as we shall see, was one of transportation rather than of actual supply.

COLLECTIONS OF METALS, USEFUL IN MAKING MUNITIONS.

The first official collection was made in the autumn of 1915, when metals of military value were carried from hearths and shrines to be melted and moulded into instruments of death. Kitchens gave up their brass oven-doors, which had to be replaced by iron, their kettles and pots and pans; public buildings were stripped of their copper roofs; churches lost their bells, that the foundries might be fed. It has been estimated that the kitchens and roofs of Germany had stored in them enough copper and brass to furnish a supply for two years. As copper roofing had been very popular, great quantities of copper had been imported for that use. One of the buildings unroofed for its metal hoard was the Rathaus at Bremen.

The contributions were paid for by weight without any consideration of their artistic value, though heirlooms were sometimes allowed to remain in their owners' possession. As the demand for metals kept in advance of supplies, however, the requisitions became more and more severe and searching, until copper articles had entirely disappeared from private houses. A Swedish lady tells an incident that she witnessed in Berlin, at a baker's. Two policemen came into the shop and began unscrewing some brass trays which were used for displaying cakes, whereupon the baker shouted to them in excitement: "Go across to the Prince in the castle yonder, and take the door-handles from his stable doors, which have twice as much copper in them as my trays, and

leave me my things which I need for my business." But the Prince was a Captain of the Hussars and a man of great wealth, therefore his door-handles were left in place while the baker was deprived of his trays.

THE ATTEMPT TO SUBSTITUTE PAPER FOR COTTON.

Systematic saving (*sparsamkeit*) and officially-managed collections were the order of the day, all over the country. Children carried donations to school. Women gathered up cartloads of paper. Everyone helped to collect fruit-stones for the precious drops of oil that could be extracted from them. There were imperial metal week, imperial wool week, and imperial gold week when everyone contributed treasures and trinkets of gold, receiving in exchange others made of iron. If, as has been said, the families of war profiteers were at that very time spending extravagant sums on gold and jewels, the sacrifice made by the many seems all the more poignant and impressive.

The shortage in cotton was kept from public notice as long as possible, but when Great Britain had declared this important material absolute contraband of war the strain became acute. Trade in the commodity had to be reorganized and only absolutely necessary cotton fabrics might be manufactured. By February, 1916, textile manufactures were brought under government control. Further steps included the control of clothing, distribution by ticket, and the official regulation of the length of material allowed for each garment. Fairly satisfactory substitutes for cotton to be used for high explosives were discovered, as we have seen. By 1917, fabrics made of paper were being made up into children's garments and workmen's blouses. Cellulose, thistles and hair were other substitutes used in manufacturing cloth. These textiles

were not durable but they served the immediate purpose.

The pride and interest of the nation were for a time engaged and held by the exhibitions of skill and efficiency in adaptation which they witnessed;—electrical works turned into munition factories, shells manufactured in the place of machinery, field kitchens produced by boiler makers, and water-



HINDENBURG SERVING THE RED CROSS

Crowds repaired to the Tiergarten in Berlin to drive nails into the giant wooden figure of their hero. For the privilege of adding a gold nail, one paid ten marks; for a silver nail, five marks; for an iron nail, one mark.

N. Y. Times

proof clothing put forth by umbrella manufacturers. Until real want and suffering laid hold upon body and mind, the people were pleased with the illusion of their country's self-sufficiency.

THE GROWING SCARCITY OF CLOTHES BRINGS LEGISLATION.

When on February 1, 1916, the State took over control of textiles, part of the clothing industry was covered, too. Certain stocks were requisitioned at prices fixed by the Imperial Arbitration Office. These in-

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cluded such things as blankets, bedding, other household linen, and handkerchiefs, as well as clothing that could be used for the army, navy, men in civil service and prisoners of war. From this time uniforms were no longer issued to railway employes. A month or two later, the maximum length of material for each article of dress for women and children was prescribed by the Prussian Ministry of War, and a detailed table was drawn up by a committee of specialists.

Already, an appeal had been made to the women of Germany to show their patriotism by wearing garments that would require less material than those in fashion. Plates and model costumes were used in an effort to popularize a revival of old Viennese styles. An economical *Reform-Kleid* ("reform dress"), which was advocated also, proved too ugly to survive except as food for jokes in the weeklies. Devotion to Paris leadership was hard to kill; for women still managed to get fashion sheets and fashion news by smuggling. Clothing prescription and leather shortage did not prevent their wearing full skirts and high boots; while their hats, if there was a chance, were copies of Paris models. But isolation did in time produce a difference in styles; while ingenuity was in the end put to the test in the matter of materials, as, witness, woolen curtains and blankets converted, after dyeing, into winter gowns or wraps.

THE CLOTHES TICKET IS INTRODUCED AND THE RESTRICTIONS EXTENDED.

June 10, 1916, is the date which marks the introduction of the clothes tickets (*Bezugscheine*), the first object of which was to protect the poor by preventing the well-to-do from buying up necessary lower-priced articles. Those who could afford to do so were encouraged to buy articles of luxury at a higher price rather than goods that were in general demand. By degrees additions were made to the list of things to be obtained by ticket only, and higher-priced articles took their places there. A ticket had to be procured in the district where one lived, and the applicant seeking a ticket for

the first time must answer many questions. If the wardrobe supply could be proven insufficient, the permit would be granted. It was then placed on file. It was non-transferable and could be used for only the sort of merchandise indicated upon it. Separate tickets must be secured for different articles. The clothes ticket bore, in all seriousness, the notice that it was "good only in the German Empire."

Throughout 1916 the system was expanding, until in the autumn, there was a general stocktaking of the clothing supplies in the whole country. By Christmas time, trade in second-hand clothing, linen and footwear came into the hands of the State. Even transactions in old clothes were carried on by local authorities, and only by means of permits. When a man bought a new suit he was required to give up his old one to be put in condition for the use of some returned soldier.

It was natural that 1917 should bring more stringent ruling. Permits for underwear and stockings were hard to obtain. The allowance of stockings for each person was two pairs in three months. In April, shoes were included in the ticket system, with not more than two pairs a year permitted to an individual. The poor quality of leather made this provision insufficient. None but the soldiers' shoes were good. A call was made upon the prosperous to give up any clothing and footwear they could spare. Then, an absolute maximum of all wearing apparel was established, and no one who already possessed the authorized maximum could get a permit for more. Household linen also was strictly limited. Hotels and boarding-houses were forbidden to make any additions to their stock of bed and table linen. Expensive articles which could be obtained without ticket (*ohne Bezugschein*) were displayed and advertised in the hope of diverting buyers from the diminishing stock of things listed.

THE SUPPLY OF FOOD BEGINS TO BE INSUFFICIENT.

Every month brought some change, some added restraint, intended to furnish relief and postpone disaster.

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The time came when only paper fabrics were allowed in shrouds, while shoes and stockings were positively forbidden for burials. To a people like the Germans, accustomed to having their affairs shaped by the State, compliance was easier than it would have been among a more independent and democratic public; but questions and doubts as to the causes of the war and the

must naturally be vulnerable in war." The British blockade, in spite of vehement submarine demonstrations of resistance, drove the lesson home.

German "hunger" was used as a basis of appeal to neutrals, long before actual hunger became a serious condition. So it played a part in international affairs. Meanwhile, at home, the nation was dealing with its prob-



A CLOTHING BUREAU OF THE RED CROSS

Among the extensive activities of the Red Cross organization, provision for orphans and other needy ones was included. To its doors came those who could spare, bringing garments and other useful donations. To the same doors came those who had need of help, receiving frocks, cloaks, shoes or undergarments that could not be supplied at home under war conditions. Hosts of devoted women gave their time to such helpful work.

Henry Ruschin

reasons for its prolongation grew as daily life grew more and more bitter with hardship.

Among the experiences that made for bitterness and gloom none worked more direfully than the fear that arose from a steady contraction of food supplies. At the outset, of course, no such life-and-death struggle was foreseen. But, long before the guns of the Allies ceased to speak on the battle front, the German people were learning the truth of the saying: "A food-importing nation that does not absolutely control the paths by which its nourishment reaches it from outside

lems in public and in private, meeting them sometimes wisely, sometimes with the unwisdom and injustice of partisan favoritism; sometimes courageously, and again with dismal or ugly complaining.

THE FARMERS REFUSE TO SELL AT THE PRICES FIXED.

After a census of the country's supplies had been taken, as a first step toward conservation, the authorities in the autumn of 1914 issued a statement declaring: "We have bread and corn enough to feed the Army and the people until the next harvest. We must be sparing with our supplies in

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order to start the next harvest year with the necessary reserves. We desire to be able to see the war through under all circumstances until we have won the certainty of a permanent peace." In November a scheme of maximum prices was established on the basis of somewhat over fifty dollars as the cost of a ton of rye in Berlin, prices varying with the distance from the source of supply. At this time, too, there was a beginning of the bakery restrictions, of which so much was heard later, when German "war bread" (*Kriegsbrot*) became almost a symbol. The first instructions as to the ingredients of the new bread were that at least ten per cent of rye should be put into wheat bread and at least five per cent of potato into rye bread. It was allowable to use as much as thirty per cent of potato in bread.

Weaknesses in the new system became apparent at once, when farmers withheld their stocks from market, and dealers chose to send supplies to the markets where the prices were highest (the difference in prices had no true relation to the cost of transportation). Farmers were not forced to keep the markets supplied, due to the influence of the agrarian element in the government where it was treated "too tenderly." It was said of this class, "The agrarian, the great Junker of Prussia, not only will not make sacrifices, but stubbornly insists upon wringing every pfennig of misery money from the nation which has boasted to the world that its patriotism was unselfish and unrivaled."

Landed farmers continued to maintain large stocks of cattle and pigs, feeding them (now that the fodder supply from Russia had been cut off) grain that should have been used for the food of human beings, but smaller proprietors found it impossible to feed their stock and so were compelled to kill the animals.

THE COMMITTEE ON PIGS MAKES A GRAVE MISTAKE.

A striking mistake was the killing of too many pigs at the start. It was recommended by a committee that as many as sixty-five per cent of the

swine in the country be disposed of, in order to save the skim milk and butter-milk (albuminous foods) ordinarily fed to them. There resulted, as one writer expresses it, "first, a glut of pork, and months afterward a famine of fat." The same writer notes this lapse as a proof that German efficiency is not infallible. He says: "If you had seen, shortly after the beginning of the war, a swine conference in Berlin, at which statisticians, physicists, chemists, agriculturists, commerzienrats, and one government official sat down to determine just how many hogs would have to be killed at once to effect a permanent equilibrium between vegetable and animal food for men, with the certainty that their conclusion would be accepted as scientific and acted upon accordingly, you would have said, 'That is German efficiency.' And so it was. But they killed too many hogs, and were sorry, because new problems arose on that account, notably the problem of fat."

More than a little waste resulted, owing to hasty and careless dressing of the meat. The public, notwithstanding, was cheered by the plentiful store of pork, since they felt no anticipation of the evil days to come when there would be so few pigs that the dearth of fats would make of commonest soap a rare luxury. In those later days of want exhortations were placarded in country places, such as:—

"FATTEN PIGS

"Fat is an essential for soldiers and hard workers. Not to keep and fatten pigs if you are able to do so is treason to the Fatherland. No pen empty—every pen full."

And the words were an offense to the small farmer who could not keep pigs or cattle because of lack of feed for them.

HOW BREAD TICKETS WERE ISSUED AND MANAGED.

After the statisticians and other specialists had determined upon the apportionment of food materials, various plans for regulating the existing supplies were tried. Before the end

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of the year, a War Corn Company (*Kriegsgetreidegesellschaft*) was formed—the directors including industrial magnates and representatives of the State. When, in January, the government seized the corn supplies, the stocks thus acquired passed into the possession of the War Corn Company or of local municipal organizations, to be thence distributed as was judged

where about two thousand workers persisted for two hours in showing their disapproval. The form of the bread ticket, also, varied. It was divided into sections, so that rolls or small loaves might be bought instead of a single large loaf; and at the bottom of the card was a flour ticket. One had a choice between a supply of flour and a supply of bread. At one time the



SOLDIERS ON GUARD OVER BERLIN STORES

When provisions grew scarce and hard to get, so that one must wait in line long hours for a scant supply that would be quickly used up, the problem of obtaining food became a weariness of the flesh and a vexation of the spirit. The futile expedient of rioting was tried, with broken windows, wrecked stalls and ruined goods as a result. But the disorder was soon suppressed by police and military control.

best. After some experimenting in methods for administering a uniform bread ration, "bread tickets" were adopted, at which time a long statement of explanation to the public appealed to every individual to remember that "conscientious obedience to the regulations is a grave and sacred duty to the Fatherland."

The first bread ration allowed a little over seven ounces a day to each person. The quantity was changed from time to time, until a sharp reduction, in May, 1917, in the season before green vegetables were to be had, caused a demonstration in Unter den Linden,

butter card was placed in the middle of the bread card, and again separate tickets were used. In order to get bread at a restaurant or a boarding-house it was necessary to produce one's ticket, and be sure that one was not given short weight. But, when any one accepted an invitation to a meal, he carried his bread and butter with him.

"THEY TALK NOT OF WAR OR OF PEACE,
BUT ONLY OF BUTTER."

Not until the autumn of 1915, when harvests were bad and fats and oils were getting very scarce, did conditions begin to press hard. Super-

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vision of prices was taken in hand with new system; local authorities were granted larger powers, especially for the restriction of meat consumption; and separate government offices were set up for separate articles, as for instance, the "Imperial Potato Office."

Perhaps the most widely-felt deprivation of that autumn was the lack of butter. Long lines waiting for hours in front of the shops suggested the coining of a new verb to fit the experience,—*butterstehen* ("to stand and wait for butter"). Butter absorbed a large part of the national consciousness. Indeed the *Frankfurter Zeitung* complained: "Anybody who listens to the conversations of German women, no matter to what class they belong, is constantly faced with the question of butter. It is as if these women had no other care and no other yearning except butter. They talk not of war or of peace but only of butter."

There was some rioting in places,—smashing of windows, overturning of stalls, and similar demonstrations, but none of very dangerous proportions. The police were able promptly to establish order and prevent any really serious disturbances. Soon the extension of the card system to include butter, milk, meat and soap) then, later, eggs and other groceries, reduced the crowds and thereby reduced the probability of outbreaks.

M EATLESS DAYS FAIL TO SOLVE THE PROBLEM.

The initial step in restricting the consumption of meat was to assign meatless days,—Tuesdays and Fridays—when no meat was to be sold in shops or served in restaurants. Evasions of the ruling, together with the rapid reduction of the meat supply, made it necessary to adopt meat cards. These remained under local control until October, 1916, when the regulation was taken over by the State. Even then the butchers sometimes had too little meat to sell. Some of them assigned different days of the week for customers holding different numbers, and so avoided embarrassment. Eggs were substituted on the menus for pork, beef, and veal, until they, too,

became so rare that cards restricted a person to two eggs a week, and eventually to one egg in two weeks. Game was eaten by those who could get it, and poultry by those who could afford it. In a Dresden restaurant a pleasing variation was offered for a limited time when an elephant which had been hurt in the Zoo, and had to be killed, furnished elephant meat, sold without ticket. As to fish and vegetables, the former finally began to soar in price and of the vegetables the most reliable were the least palatable—onions, cabbage, and turnips (the unfailing *kohlrabi*, said to be "fine for filling up space").

Before these extreme conditions were reached, a War Nutrition Office, established in May, 1916, with Herr von Batocki at its head, was given the "right of disposal" over all stocks of necessities of life, raw materials, and other commodities, and all fodder, this right of disposal including the power to regulate trade and consumption, importation and exportation and prices. In December its functions were somewhat restricted when the War Emergency Office was formed, including a department for providing food for that part of the population engaged in war work. Herr von Batocki's task, thereafter, was to administer what was left for the old, infirm, young children, and non-working mothers.

MOST OF THE SUBSTITUTES PROVIDED ARE UNPALATABLE.

Through the fall and winter, 1916-1917, the sale of canned vegetables was forbidden so that they might be saved for use in the spring before fresh vegetables were available; yet in September, 1917, the already scant food ration was dropped from twelve pounds a month to nine pounds. There was danger that the bread supply would fail before the new harvest, at a time when bread and potatoes formed the bulk of the ration. Milk, long reserved for young children and invalids, had no place in the diet of a healthy adult under forty-five. As sugar grew more and more difficult to obtain, saccharine was substituted. Candy and chocolate were costly and hard to get. Pro-

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vision was made, when possible, for sweets of some sort in the dietaries of children.

Of the many substitutes placed in the market, as the natural supplies failed, milfix (to take the place of milk); egg substitutes (in powder or capsule form); and "butter stretch" (which, added to a quarter of a pound of butter, expanded it into a half-

STORIES OF SMUGGLING AND OF ILLEGAL PURCHASES.

There are stories told of wealthy persons in Berlin and in Vienna who, when they were able, by paying fabulous sums, to obtain a little smuggled coffee, gave parties to their friends, occasions that were considered worthy of forming the chief topic of conversation for days following. In Austria,



UNLOADING POTATOES IN THE CITY OF BERLIN

If the potato could but have its eyes opened to its own importance in world economics, it might swell with pride, and demand to be served in nothing meaner than silver. Those were dark days, during the war, when Berlin was without potatoes. Since complaints were louder in the poorer, hungrier East-end than in the more aristocratic, royalty-loving West-end, when potatoes arrived it was expedient to supply the East-end first.

pound) proved acceptable. Meat substitutes, especially those masquerading as sausage, seem to have been far from savory; while the imitation coffee (*Kaffee-Ersatz*) is declared by an American woman to have been "the most horrible stuff anyone ever tasted with the exception of the substitute they have for tea." Nevertheless, the Germans, in their devotion to the diversions of café life, accepted the ill-tasting concoction eagerly and still sat around their little tables drinking it or letting it cool before them while they talked, probably on the painful but fascinating topic of things to eat.

particularly, coffee is said to have been as "rare as diamonds" and to have cost almost as much, if we are to believe an account of a Vienna lady's journey to Trieste to buy fifty pounds of it from a woman there for eight hundred dollars.

Smuggling and illicit buying were common performances. It was the usual thing to purchase at night through back doors at forbidden prices provisions which could be had only by card at prescribed prices by day, or perhaps could not be had at all by regular processes. One foreign resident confesses that anything could be

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bought without a card if you knew how to do it. "Most people had crooked ways of getting things, and we all were as crooked as we had a chance to be," she adds.

Smuggling, clandestine buying at high prices, hoarding and profiteering wove a web of evils in which many of the middle class and the poor of the cities were enmeshed almost hopeless-

operated where good food was sold at low prices. In already existing food-kitchens, instituted in peace days by philanthropic persons, patronage greatly increased during wartime; while new Middle Class Kitchens and People's Kitchens, established under either municipal or private control, dispensed hot, nourishing meals to waiting women and children, day by



A FOOD KITCHEN IN BERLIN AND SOME OF ITS PATRONS.

To feed millions of hungry mouths when the nation's larder was scantily supplied required careful co-operative planning. One solution of the problem was found in the establishment of food kitchens in the cities, where nourishing food was provided. This picture shows one of the kitchens in Berlin, with a group of young patrons.

ly; for, at its best, the official ration was far below what was adequate to support working strength. Reliable reports state that producers kept back abundant supplies for themselves; that to raise the price they held back potatoes when there were plenty; that they went so far as to unload upon a hungry public a store of potatoes (advertised to be sold without ticket and ordered in advance) so bad as to be unfit for swine.

PUBLIC KITCHENS ESTABLISHED IN THE PRINCIPAL CITIES.

By way of mitigating hardship in the large cities, public kitchens were

day. Some were under the patronage of women's clubs. Some, like that of the American Chamber of Commerce, were carried on largely by the voluntary help of society women. In addition to the kitchens that had a local habitation as well as a name there was the traveling soup-kitchen, or "goulash cannon," from whose steaming cauldron were ladled out into lifted cans and pails many quarts of good hot stew along the city streets. In cases of persons who could be certified as unable to pay, the distribution was free.

Since "men cling to food habits

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when all others disappear," it was no easy task that confronted the housewives who had to feed their families with so few of the usual food stuffs and ingredients in their larders. Lectures, practical demonstrations, experience meetings, and war cook-books, offered assistance. At first the results were not encouraging. Women came to the meeting-places "in droves, listened intently, applauded enthusiastically—and then went home and, after a brief struggle against the family tastes, gave up and tried to adhere to the pre-war dietary." But housewives' guilds, that advocated a rigid economy, finally succeeded in helping to solve some of the problems by establishing consulting and advisory bureaus and by introducing such wiles as cooking parties where new recipes were presented and tried. Unusual menus, with such dishes as beer soup, plum soup, potato and cabbage pudding, appeared in the cook-books.

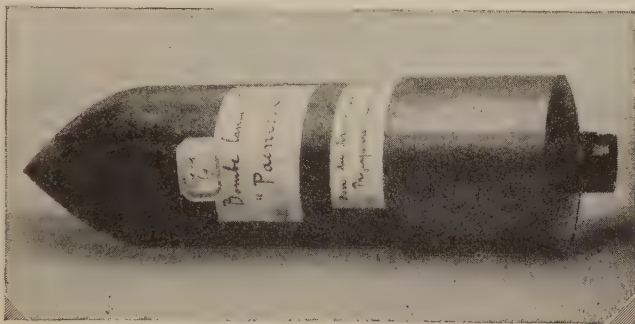
PUBLIC RESTAURANTS NEVER BETTER PATRONIZED.

Water in which potatoes had been cooked must not be thrown out but kept for making soup or gravy; to perpetuate a tea flavor, plum leaves were stewed with real tea leaves before being dried to be used as a substitute; and in some families coffee grounds were used over and over as preferable to the detestable *Kaffee-Ersatz*.

It might reasonably have been expected that public eating places would decline, as food and drink deteriorated and dwindled, but not so! Rather, they flourished under the changed conditions, as people sought solace for discomfort in their accustomed haunts. "When you cannot stand it any longer," writes a foreigner in Berlin, "you take what is left of your family and purse and go to a restaurant to eat and drink moderately, but slowly, for the whole evening." Cafés, beer-halls, restaurants and hotels, like the play-houses and opera (after a brief period

of closing), were well-filled. The famous Adlon, "where everybody goes because everybody else does," claimed, indeed, that the second winter of the war started its most prosperous year.

Though service in the beer-halls was limited and the beer was not of the best, there was full demand for what was to be gotten. In a Berlin establishment only those in chairs might be served. The customers met the difficulty by carrying camp-chairs to sit upon. And in Munich, when the beer-halls were not opened until six o'clock in the evening, the undaunted Münchenerers stood at the doors knocking out tunes with their mugs from



A BOMBFUL OF PROPAGANDA

four o'clock on.

JEALOUSY BETWEEN THE DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF THE COUNTRY.

It must not be supposed that all parts of the country felt the strain uniformly. As a matter of fact, there was sufficient inequality to cause friction, especially with Bavaria, where the regulations of the War Nutrition Office met stubborn resistance. The Bavarians, having provided a bountiful supply of meat for the army and given up great quantities of dairy products for the use of North Germany as well as for export to neutral countries in exchange for currency, were resentful that Prussian tourists invaded their health resorts for the sake of the better food to be gotten there. Munich, where bread was better than in Berlin, and where meat, vegetables, fruit, sugar and other foods were more plentiful, had its own distributing stations for the supply of Bavaria.

While the army ration was larger and better than that of the civil population, there were times when the provisions set aside for the fighters had to be shared with those at home, a necessity which Ludendorff and the rest of the Supreme Army Command deplored. A reversal of exchange between individual civilians and soldiers came about, too. Instead of receiving parcels of food from home, the men at the front, particularly officers, sent part of their own rations to their families.

PRODUCTION FAILS TO INCREASE IN PROPORTION TO THE NEED.

Increased production, the only real help or salvation for the land, did not keep step with the need, in spite of exhortations by the government, in spite of war gardens in city lots, in spite of soldiers sent home on leave for sowing and planting time, in spite of the substitution of artificial nitrates for foreign manures. Discouragements and obstacles held down production. "When a man has no interest in the planting, marketing, and selling price of his produce; when he knows that what he grows may be swept away from his district without being sure that it will be of any benefit to himself and his family; when, in addition, the father or sons of the household lie buried by the Yser, the Somme, the Meuse or the Drina, it is impossible for the authorities to inspire any enthusiasm for life, let alone war, even among so docile a people as those they deal with." The fixing of maximum prices and the regulation of consumption were not enough. Without control of produce distribution to markets and without the support of the agrarian producers these measures were destined to fail of their end.

FOOD AND SUPPLIES DRAWN FROM THE OCCUPIED TERRITORIES.

Although to record here in detail the toll drawn by Germany from the occupied areas of Belgium, France, Poland and Serbia, is impossible, a brief glance over this phase of the history is necessary for the sake of justice and balance. Having caught some idea of the need of raw material we must look at the other side of the page,

where the ruthless seizure of raw materials is pictured. In the words of General Ludendorff the Prussian viewpoint is plainly stated:—

"In such a war it was *inevitable* that the occupied territories would have to supply raw materials. *Firmness* gradually achieved a great deal in this direction. . . . It is obvious that this involved hardship for the local populations, but equally obvious that these steps *had to be taken*." He speaks casually of seizing *all* the Belgian locomotives to relieve transportation troubles, and regrets that the Russian rolling-stock could not be used because it was of a wrong gauge. With regard to scrap metal for steel production he remarks: "We removed it from the occupied districts in large quantities. *Many a factory had to be sacrificed to our war industry*, under the pressure of the blockade and the necessities of the war, in order to furnish old iron for the steel of our weapons and ammunition. The output of steel gradually became sufficient."

THE EXTENT OF THE SPOILIATION OF BELGIUM AND FRANCE.

Yet he would have us feel that the German attitude was almost compassionate. "In spite of all our needs," he tells us, "we acted with a *leniency that was carried almost too far* when compared with the extreme steps taken at home." Humanitarian argument he regards as "absurd," and he deplores the political propaganda developed by the democratic foes of the government out of the unavoidable "discontent" of a populace living under a really beneficent German rule. With regard to provisions concerning education, religion and administration of justice among the conquered, he is complacency itself. "I firmly believe that only the Germans would take so much trouble in a conquered country," he asserts in telling of the legal system set up in Lithuania. And, "We went so far in our desire for toleration as to give the Jews wheaten flour for unleavened bread," he claims again. Whether this has any connection with the admission, on another page, that the Jew was an indispensable middle-

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man in getting the skins, hides, copper, brass, rags and scrap-iron that were forwarded to the Home War Department we can only conjecture.

After-war investigations and reports have made it a familiar story how thousands upon thousands of tons of wool were wrested from France and Belgium to make German uniforms or help out the home market;

that if our government were responsible for the war we should be able to bear all these terrible sacrifices?"

FIELDS AND FORESTS OF THE OCCUPIED TERRITORY EXPLOITED.

The development of agriculture in some of the occupied territory was elaborately systematized under the control of specialists. With supplies of tractor plows and other modern



"BAA, BAA, BLACK SHEEP, HAVE YOU ANY WOOL?"

Here are more than the "three bags full," of the rhyme. By commandeering from the people of the conquered areas wool in every form (blankets, Oriental rugs, clothing, filling of mattresses, etc., as seen in the picture), ransacking houses to find it, prying even into the spaces between walls where things were sometimes hidden by desperate owners, the Germans collected thousands of tons of wool, to be used in manufacturing army supplies.

how thousands upon thousands of factories (26,000 in France alone, it is claimed) were destroyed or denuded of their machinery; how horses, cattle and hogs were carried off until in Belgium there were hardly any horses left and the diminution in the remaining live-stock had reached about one-half the original number. Was there not a bond of sympathy between the poor German countrywoman who had killed her pig because she could not feed it and the Flemish peasant whose pig had been seized to help prolong the war? "We do so long for peace," exclaimed the former. "Do you think

machinery, and horses from the artillery, the work was pushed intensively. For example, sixty per cent of the arable land in Northern France was cultivated by the German Army itself; twenty per cent, by combined labor of the army and the local peasants; the remaining twenty per cent, by the peasants alone. The army took the crops from the land cultivated by its own efforts, including half of the part operated in combination. Of the thirty per cent nominally left to the peasants, much was paid for in promissory notes, redeemable and payable after the war.

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Fine forests such as those of Poland invited exploitation. From the saw-mills built there, wood and pulp for many uses went forth to the armies and to the home factories, besides the valuable by-products—resin, charcoal and chemicals. With mines in France, Belgium, Poland and Serbia yielding

somewhat by the seizure of oil-wells in Rumania. Rumania furnished so valuable an asset in foodstuffs, too, that General Ludendorff does not hesitate to say, "In the year 1917 only Rumania enabled Germany, Austria-Hungary and Constantinople to keep their heads above water."



A WOODEN PINCUSHION

Into wooden effigies, like this of Hindenburg, the Germans drove nails of iron, silver and gold, paying so many marks for the privilege, thereby contributing to the Red Cross funds.

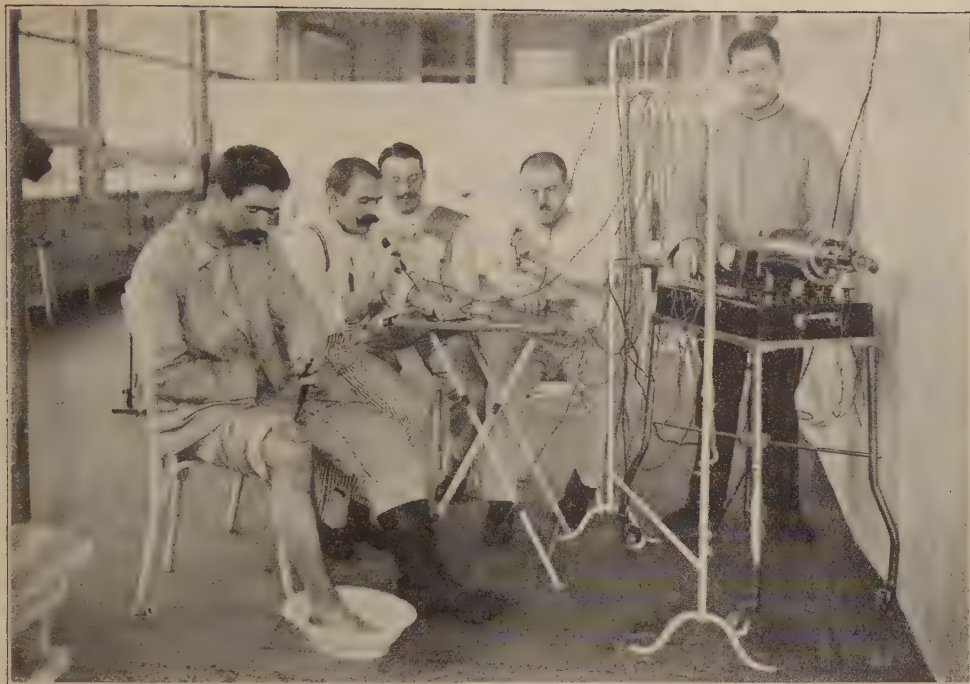
coal for the Germans, the chief problem in this case was one of transportation rather than of quantity produced. Although men were called in from the army to work on the railroads and stock was commandeered wherever it could be taken, the foundries at times were retarded in their output for lack of fuel, and in many homes there was great discomfort from cold. In the cities, women trundled coal in baby carriages or any receptacles they could use. One considerable factor in the transport difficulties was the shortage of lubricants, which was mitigated

THE DEPORTATIONS AND THE WORK OF WAR PRISONERS.

One of the questions to be settled in the conquered lands was whether machinery and workers should be made use of where they were or transferred to Germany. Many factories and workshops were operated in the territory itself, as, for instance, those for barbed-wire production, wood-sawing and railway work in Poland. Inhabitants, in spite of protest and resistance, were employed in cultivating the fields, laboring under military engineers, and otherwise serving the conquerors. Worse than this, on the plea of economic and social benefit for the victims, oppressed by the evils of serious "unemployment caused by the British blockade," the German authorities saw fit to deport to Germany numbers of men and women who would release from the farms and shops of the Fatherland fighters for the Kaiser's army. The unhappy lot of the French and Belgian exiles is a familiar tale. From Poland and Russia, too, addi-

tional man-power was drawn. What conscious rectitude breathes in the statement that in these matters "the military authorities were acting from patriotic duty and not arbitrarily"!

The factor, however, that counted most toward saving the industrial life of Germany was the labor of prisoners of war, principally the Russians, who greatly outnumbered all others. Working side by side with peasant women on farms all over Germany, or doing rough labor for new constructions, they were better pleased to be busy than unoccupied.



ELECTRICAL TREATMENT FOR THE WOUNDED

No scientific knowledge or skill was allowed to be wasted in Germany. The specialized ability and training of scientists and surgeons were at the command of the nation that they might be devoted to the work of saving or rebuilding as much as possible of the man-power of the land. The success was remarkable.



ORTHOPEDIC CONTRIVANCES FOR RESTORING THE INJURED

Work for the Kriegbeschädigte (damaged by war) covered a broad field. No pains were spared in the effort to reconstruct the broken strength of the men who had been thrown out of the ranks because of injury. A surprisingly large percentage of them returned to the army. Others were prepared for usefulness in civil pursuits after proper treatment and training. The Government undertook the expense and control of this work.

Pictures, H. Ruschin

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

THE WAR WORK OF THE GERMAN WOMEN.

Into the posts left vacant by their men stepped the women of Germany, adapting themselves to the roughest and most unaccustomed occupations until there was perhaps no task or calling that did not claim them.



AN OPPORTUNITY TO SHARE

The National Women's Service League is receiving offerings to brighten the Christmas of the Berlin soldiers' wives. Many volunteer workers in the League were kept busy assorting donated articles, directing repairs and alterations, and distributing gifts.

When the schoolmasters had to go, women of education took their places; and so it happened all down the scale. Women operated street-cars and taxicabs, punched tickets at stations, cleaned windows, ran elevators, delivered milk and coal, even did heavy digging for the underground railway. They acted as letter-carriers, car-conductors, bill-posters, street-cleaners, and drivers of ash wagons.

While among the leisure classes there were those whose attention was still held by fashion and amusements and their own selfish concerns, the

majority were eager to be of use to their country. At first they turned to knitting and Red Cross work. Then the founding of the National Women's Service League gave broader opportunities. Work for the families of soldiers covered many activities;—investigation of conditions, relief for needs,

assistance in the care and nourishment of children, arranging lucrative employment for the mothers, collecting and distributing clothing. There was work for all who offered their services, and the response to the call was generous. Other organizations provided for training society women in gardening, cooking, household management, etc. Most useful results were achieved, too, in the collecting and canning of fruit and vegetables.

TAKING CARE OF THE MUTILATED AND RESTORING THEM.

Of their substance the people contributed freely to the unending collections for charities. Boxes were kept on the teachers' desks that the pupils might drop in their gifts to be used for the sick or distressed. And there were crowds who flocked to drive their gold or silver or iron nails into the great wooden Hindenburg in the Tiergarten at Berlin and into other smaller effigies in various places. Many well-to-do families undertook the support of orphans or provided for

the recreation of poor children, partly or fully adopting them.

Nowhere, perhaps, did Germany show greater ability than in restoring her crippled soldiers to active life. She could send a man to be torn and shattered, blinded or dismembered. Then she would strive with all the resources of science and skill to put him together again and set him to work. Wonders were performed. In many cases, the patient was restored to his own trade or given government employment. Arms and legs, fitted upon the badly maimed, enabled them

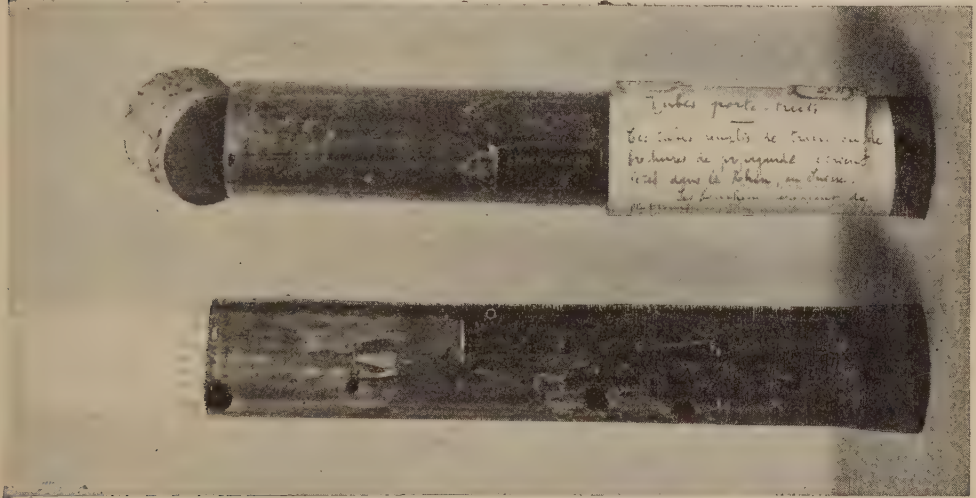
HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

to resume activities. There is a case reported of a legless engineer running a fast train on an important railway. Special training was given the blinded. Training, where needed, was given without expense to the soldier; and there were new establishments that provided for the new contingencies, like a farm for one-legged men.

WHY THE RHINE CITIES MUST BE FED FIRST.

In all the fluctuating circumstances one flaming centre was considered

times, the conditions under the driving stress of war became so unfortunate as to produce in the laborers a state of mind which was torn between hatred for England and discontent with their own hard lot. Working under martial law for eight hours a day (there were three eight-hour shifts), seven days a week, on a diet which included no fats but consisted chiefly of beans and potatoes, and sleeping, as some did, in crowded barracks, they became a lump made ready for Socialist leaven.



TUBES ENCLOSING PROPAGANDA

Propaganda played an extensive part in the war. In fact, some of the German leaders attributed their downfall in great part to the use of propaganda by the Allies. Various methods of distribution were employed by both sides. Leaflets were scattered from aeroplanes or ejected from bombs, or, as in this case, sealed in watertight containers. These particular tubes were thrown into the Rhine in Switzerland to be floated down the river.

first—the Rhenish-Westphalian cities where the war-god had his forge. There the complement of workers must be fed—more than were their brothers elsewhere, even as the fighting men on the battle-fields. In fact, they were allowed one-third more than ordinary civilians. Essen, the heart of the group of towns where the production of munitions was going on day and night, is the home of the Krupp works. This enormous plant, which had made its owner, Frau von Bohlen and Halbach (*née* Krupp), one of the wealthiest women in the world, became in war practically a Government Department. In spite of the excellence of equipment for the home life and comfort of the workers in normal

In the earlier years of the war, Hamburg, too, was a swarming hive of industry, where as many as fifteen thousand men were employed night and day, "getting ready for the Hamburg of tomorrow." The giants of the sea, the "Bismarck," of 55,000 tons, and the "Tirpitz," of 32,000 tons, grew up in the docks there, while sailor boys were in training to man an extensive merchant marine after the war. The total tonnage of new boats up to the winter of 1916 was announced to be 740,000 tons, with 100,000 additional then under construction.

**GRADUALLY UNITY AND CONCORD DIS-
APPEAR UNDER STRESS OF WAR.**

In the first hours of the war, unity and concord, founded upon emotions

of loyalty to the country, actuated all parties and all classes. Socialists laid aside their antagonisms to fall into line temporarily. But the years 1915 and 1916 introduced political questions that reawakened controversy and dissension; 1917 and 1918 brought actual division and disaster. Around the Chancellor, von Bethmann-Hollweg, swirled the conflicting currents of opinion, while he endeavored to keep the government firm amid the strain.

Between the Socialists, who were opposed to annexation of territory, and the National Liberals, led by Admiral von Tirpitz, who called for extreme steps to overwhelm Great Britain, the Chancellor's course was not easy to control.

The submarine controversy, as all the world knows, brought about the fall of von Tirpitz in March, 1916, when the Kaiser was forced to choose between him and Bethmann-Hollweg. The Admiral's resignation as Secretary of State for the Imperial Navy, after nineteen years in office under three Chancellors, was a circumstance that made a deep impression. Through the disputes with the United States and the various peace moves the government manœuvred. A division in the

Socialist ranks and Dr. Liebknecht's interruption of the Chancellor's speech, resulting in his court-martial and imprisonment, were significant episodes in 1916. In July of the following year von Bethmann-Hollweg, yielding to the pressure of an anti-government *bloc* in the Reichstag, resigned.

RUMORS OF REVOLUTION SPREAD THROUGH THE LAND.

The intricacies of the political positions that followed, under the chancellorships of Dr. Michaelis, Count von Hertling and Prince Maximilian of Baden, we cannot follow here; but there was no concealing the growing spirit of unrest in the nation. Rumors of revolution were more and more persistent. Strikes and riots demanded strict policing. There were many indications that the fulfilment of a prophecy, said to have been made almost twenty years before by Carl Schurz, was drawing near. These are the words attributed to him: "I fear that some day there will be occurrences that will force the German people to wrest their destiny from the hands of the Kaiser, but by then probably it will be too late to prevent the great catastrophe."

L. MARION LOCKHART



Native Troops of the Belgian Army

CHAPTER LVIII

The Conquest of German East Africa

GERMANY FINALLY LOSES A VAST COLONIAL EMPIRE AFTER DESPERATE RESISTANCE

IN a broad-lying country, barely snatched from utter wildness, where savage beasts stalking in their haunts contributed a peculiar and sensational element of hazard, the very face of nature made the game of war an adventure requiring especial fitness and prowess on the part of the players. The human participants were so few that military forces had often to be numbered by tens instead of by thousands, but there was staged, nevertheless, a scene of the World War that equaled in earnestness and courageous undertaking, though not in dimension and importance, the titanic pageant in Europe. It worked for the frustration of a vast Mittel-Afrika scheme conceived in the German Colonial Office.

GERMAN EAST AFRICA ALMOST AN EMPIRE IN ITSELF.

From the shore of the Indian Ocean to the long, rocky-mountain-rimmed lakes of the Great Rift Valley, German East Africa covered an area of over 380,000 miles (almost twice that of Germany in Europe) including high tableland and mountain, thick forests, malarial swamps, jungles, barren stretches, and great sweeps covered with tall elephant grass. The seaboard, six hundred twenty miles in length, offered good harbors for several ports, such as Dar-es-Salaam (the capital), Tanga, Kilwa and Lindi.

But the northern section, where lie Tanga and Dar-es-Salaam, was guarded by the islands of Pemba and Zanzibar, both under British protection. Of the western lakes, the whole eastern shore of Tanganyika—more than four hundred miles—bordered the German protectorate. About one-half of beautiful and picturesque Lake Kivu was available for German use, as well as about one-fourth of Lake Nyasa.

THE STATES WHICH BOUNDED GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

The great Victoria Nyanza, in size practically equal to Scotland, lay more than half in German territory. To the west of it Uganda, and to the east, British East Africa formed the northern land boundaries of German East Africa. The western neighbor, beyond the lakes, is Belgian Congo; while Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland on the southwest and Portuguese East Africa (Mozambique) on the southeast, complete the tale of bordering states. Of the many rivers flowing through the region, the greater number are not adapted to navigation, and there are large areas of the country in virgin state, undeveloped and even uncharted.

SOME OF THE COUNTRY HABITABLE BY WHITE MEN.

The part best suited for the residence of Europeans is found in the north-

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eastern districts, where the Usambara Highlands, forming a horseshoe-shaped rim of protection around a productive valley, not many miles from the sea, almost touch the frontier of British East Africa. Here, in "the garden of the colony," a group of European village communities has been developed through the private investment of German and British capital. Other such settlements are in the hills around Mrogoro, west of Dar-es-Salaam.

Two railways have been built since the opening of the twentieth century. The Usambara line runs from the sea at Tanga to Neu Moshi in the shadow of Mount Kilimanjaro, the highest peak in Africa. The Central, or Tanganyika trunk line, terminating originally at Mrogoro, was completed to its terminus on Lake Tanganyika at Kigoma (near Ujiji) in February, 1914. The introduction of the railroads, as would be expected, greatly increased the volume of export trade from a country rich in forests and in agricultural possibilities and not without minerals.

DANGERS AND PESTS FATAL TO MAN AND BEAST.

On the British side of the border, the Uganda railway had connected Victoria Nyanza with the seaport, Mombasa, as early as 1901, although its construction had been frequently disputed and impeded by the wild creatures of the woods and river valleys. Man-eating lions nightly snatched coolies from their tents, without respect for fire or gun shots. Crocodiles snapped their trap-like jaws upon hapless bathers or drawers of water. Obstacles and impediments were on every hand. In the words of a Hindu, there were "many rocks, mountains, and dense forests abounding in lions and leopards; also buffaloes, wolves, deer, rhinoceroses, elephants, camels, and all enemies of man; gorillas, ferocious monkeys that attack men, black baboons, of giant size; . . . wild horses, wild dogs, black snakes and all animals that a hunter or sportsman could desire. The forests are so dark and dreadful that even the boldest warriors shrink from their awful depths."

Yet this catalogue has not exhausted the terrors of the land. A British officer on duty beside Victoria Nyanza in the war, adds to the list. To quote from his letter: "Every known form of insect and some peculiar to it (the lake) alone, swarm in and around it. Tsetse fly and sleeping sickness, nine kinds of fever, each worse than the one before, revel in the district in addition to hippo and crocs, which prevent bathing on the beaches." His conclusion is, "If ever the Devil had a hand in the making of a country, this is the one he took most interest in, I fancy." Official reports confirm these impressions, as we read, for instance, that in the autumn of 1916 for a period of two months, the wastage included 10,000 horses, 10,000 mules, 11,000 oxen, 2500 donkeys; while in a single week there were 9,000 men sick in hospital.

POPULATION OF THE COLONY AND THE MILITARY FORCES.

The population of German East Africa numbered about 8,000,000, with some 5000 whites. When the war began there were in the country visiting non-residents who had come for the opening of the completed Central Railway or Tanganyikabahn. The army that was immediately gathered together included many of these as well as members of crews of steamers that were in port, in addition to the German missionaries and residents of military age (estimated at about 3000), the military and police, native reserves and recruits, and Arabs. The Arabs had been incited to a Holy War by the German authorities, who suddenly turned from an anti-Mohammedan attitude to one of conciliatory friendliness. In all, we may place the number of troops organized under the German colors by October, 1914, at 30,000 natives and 4000 Germans. In command was Colonel von Lettow-Vorbeck who had been in Africa developing the local military organization since the spring of 1914. His able leadership, seconded by an ample initial supply of machine guns and other arms and by the strength of his native troops, kept German East Africa practically free

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ROUTES OF INVASION AND LINES OF GERMAN RETREAT

Here can be seen the frontiers of German East Africa, where the early border fighting took place. The general converging movement of invading forces is also plainly shown. General Smuts's force in two main columns, after the envelopment of Kilimanjaro, moved south toward the Central Railway and the Rufiji River. General Northey worked from Nyasaland north and east. Their lines approached each other near the Mahenge Plateau. Other British drives were made inland from coastal bases and, in co-operation with the Belgians, around Lake Tanganyika and Victoria Nyanza. From the northwest the Belgians pushed in upon Tabora. The southeast border the Portuguese held. The points from which General Smuts and General Northey started were 500 miles apart, and the Belgian base was 800 miles from either.

from invasion by the Allies for the first year and a half, and made it possible for the Germans to sustain the offensive during that time.

On the British frontiers of German East Africa, when the startling news of war was received, police and military bodies were recalled from distant posts,

and new forces were recruited to guard the danger points, especially the Uganda Railway, which lay perilously near the border. (The German concentration point, Moshi, was quite too close for safety.) A valuable nucleus existed in the semi-military police and the small but excellent body

of admirably-trained native fighters, the King's African Rifles, the greater part of whom were at the time engaged in Jubaland, on a punitive expedition. These were called back to the German border, and about this centre rallied volunteers from the British and Indian settlers—a thousand or more within a fortnight. Two new regiments, the East African Mounted Rifles and the East African Regiment, took shape at once, the former becoming a really effective body. The Boer Volunteers were organized into a special separate company.

THE NATIVES UNDER BRITISH RULE REMAIN LOYAL.

As to the probable action of the natives there was natural anxiety at first. Some of them were drawn into the ranks of the enemy—fine warriors from the Manyumwezi, the Masai, and other tribes; but the majority of those in British territory, especially the powerful Masai, remained loyal. Fears were set at rest by their offers to serve in the British army. The Arabs, too, on Zanzibar and the east coast, resisting the invitations and propaganda of their German neighbors, responded readily with financial and personal support to the necessity of the British. Among them, Lieutenant A. J. B. Wavell, who had made a pilgrimage to Mecca, was able to raise a body of recruits, who, known by the name of "Wavell's Arabs," soon made a reputation for themselves as staunch fighters.

These men who formed the thin line of resistance against German aggression—from the natives, who were bush-bred shikaris, and their officers, who had acquired skill as hunters of big game, to the settlers, who were "a sporting lot"—all had a close acquaintance with the hardships and dangers of the country. However, the available defenders of British territory in East Africa during the first three weeks probably numbered not many more than 1200. If the foe had struck with decision then, the outcome might have been serious, and there was reason for unrest until reinforcements from India could arrive.

DESULTORY FIGHTING DURING THE FIRST FEW WEEKS.

The early fighting was of a sort not uncommon in almost any far colonial section of the British Empire. Posts were attacked and slight incursions made by small bands from each side; on the lakes and the ocean, steamers were sunk and ports were seized. The main objectives of the Germans, on the northeast, were Mombasa and the Uganda Railway, giving approach to Nairobi, the capital. The first aim of the British, beyond the defense of their own territory, was to control Dar-es-Salaam and establish naval supremacy on the lakes.

Promptly, in the second week of August, a British cruiser from Zanzibar bombarded Dar-es-Salaam ("the harbor of peace") dismantling German ships in the harbor, sinking the floating dock and a survey ship, the *Möwe*, and disabling the wireless station installed there. At the same time, on Lake Nyasa the only German steamer was disabled by a British boat. The Germans, however, were taking their first steps toward their chosen goals by seizing Taveta, close under Kilimanjaro, and Vanga, on the coast, fifty miles south of Mombasa. The arrival, on September 3, of the first reinforcements from India was opportune. Brigadier-General J. M. Stewart, who brought the troops from the East, then assumed command of the whole British force.

THE KÖNIGSBERG FORCED TO TAKE REFUGE IN THE RUFJI RIVER.

On the southern frontier the volunteer defenders and the Rhodesian police were kept on the alert to hold their towns from capture by bodies of Germans whose numbers greatly overmatched their own. In the north, the enemy gained a tentative footing east of Victoria Nyanza, where border fighting continued at intervals with varying fortunes. But the chief effort and the chief interest centred in the section between Kilimanjaro and the ocean. Beyond the coast, indeed, the German cruiser, *Königsberg*, caused some trepidation until she was driven into the Rufiji River by the East

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Indian squadron. The damage she accomplished was the destruction, on September 20, of the Pegasus in Zanzibar harbor; she was prevented from taking part, as had been planned, in an attempt to overwhelm Mombasa.

A German attempt on Mombasa, begun on September 20, was checked at a point about twenty-five miles below the city by the determined stand of Wavell's Arabs. There, near Gazi, they held until reinforced. Then the fighting continued up to the second week in October, when the Germans withdrew. Although determined attempts to reach the Uganda Railway at Tsavo, in order to blow up the Tsavo bridge, were turned back by stiff fighting, the Germans were able to establish themselves not far from that point, as well as at Longido, northwest of Kilimanjaro (valuable as furnishing the only permanent water in a broad region), while they continued to hold Taveta.

THE BRITISH FAIL TO TAKE TANGA BY SEA.

The coming of the second Indian Expeditionary Force, under the command of Major-General A. E. Aitken, made it possible to undertake offensive action upon German East Africa. The British transports reached Tanga on November 2, and the town was called upon to surrender. In the hours of grace that were granted before bombardment should begin, German reinforcements were hurried to the port. The fight, after a landing was made, resulted in severe losses for the British, owing to heavy machine-gun fire from the housetops and to entanglements of rope hidden in sandy paths so arranged as to release signal flags fixing the gun-range, besides assaults of bees from concealed hives. The casualties amounted to 795, nearly 150 of whom were British officers and men. It was necessary to withdraw to Mombasa.

Before the end of the year, Longido had been evacuated by the enemy and reoccupied by General Stewart; a second raid by sea had been made upon Dar-es-Salaam; and the Baganda, natives of Uganda, had established a strategic line along the Kagera River.

In 1915 there was continued fighting of the same sort on all the borders. At the end of April, the command passed into the hands of Major-General M. J. Tighe, who entered with energy upon preparations for stronger offensive measures. July was marked by the destruction of the Königsberg, which, bottled up in the Rufiji, had made a strong position on the adjacent shores,



Major-General Sir Michael Joseph Tighe, commanding in Africa from April, 1915, to February, 1916, paved the way around Kilimanjaro for General Smuts's successful campaign.

where some of her guns had been set up. When her location had been discovered by British aircraft, two river monitors were sent to bombard her. After heavy shelling on July 4 and July 11, the cruiser was entirely destroyed; but her crew, numbering about 600, and her guns went to join the land army of Colonel von Lettow-Vorbeck.

GERMAN ATTEMPTS TO INVADE RHODESIA ARE REPULSED.

In Northern Rhodesia German attacks on Fife and Saisi were repulsed with unyielding courage on the part of their garrisons, though in the latter

place telegraph connection had been broken down, there was scant supply of food, and water could be obtained from the river only at great peril under cover of darkness. As to the difficulties with regard to supplies and transport on this front, Viscount Buxton states: "From 1st April to 31st December, 1915, 20,000 carriers were employed in carrying over 1,000,000 pounds of supplies from distant bases, and an additional 50,000 in bringing grain from adjacent districts."

By March, 1915, British supremacy on Victoria Nyanza had been secured; but the story of the control of Lake Tanganyika (where the Belgians co-operated with their ally) involves a seemingly mad venture that was, nevertheless, carried through to success. Two motor-boats, swift and well-armored, the Mimi and the Toutou, made the journey from England to Cape Town and from Cape Town to the lake without disaster, then proceeded to work havoc among the German boats. After February, 1916, only one of any size remained, the last of the German flotilla on the lakes. This, a twin-screw steamer, the Graf von Götzen, was finally scuttled by her captain after having been bombed by a Belgian aeroplane. The introduction of motor boats and aeroplanes into the heart of Africa had been a surprise to the enemy. Some of the natives insisted upon believing that the airships were birds.

THE DIFFICULT TRIP OF TWO MOTOR BOATS.

The trip of the motor boats from the southern point of the continent included 2300 miles by train; 150 miles by haulage over atrocious roads where the altitude varied from 2000 to 6000 feet; another short ride on trucks by rail; a 400-mile run down a river, floating under their own power; a bit of the way on lighters among rocks and shoals, and a final stage by rail. Commander Spicer Simson, in his report, pays tribute to his men and their devotion to the enterprise. He says: "Washing, and even drinking, water was voluntarily given up for use in the boilers of the traction engines in order that the

progress of the expedition should not be delayed."

For the protection of the Uganda front, General Tighe directed the capture of Bukoba on Victoria Nyanza, where the fort and the wireless installation were destroyed and valuable documents taken. But the commander's attention was most concerned with plans for invasion of the Kilimanjaro section. Because of the arid nature of the country there, it was necessary to pipe for a water supply and to build and carry tanks. The preparations made by General Tighe were so admirable as to be praised by General Smuts and, with but slight changes, carried forward on the same lines by him after he assumed command.

GENERAL SMUTS TAKES OVER THE CHIEF COMMAND.

The change in control took place in February, 1916, after new brigades raised in South Africa had begun to arrive at Mombasa. As Sir Horace L. Smith-Dorrien, who had been appointed, was prevented by ill-health from assuming the East African leadership, General Smuts was prevailed upon to accept it. With the rank of Lieutenant-General in the British Army, he arrived on the eastern coast, February 19, to infuse with his inspiring, whole-souled enthusiasm the troops under his command and to throw his able generalship into campaigns that would rid East Africa of German armies. The first work was to reorganize the British forces, whose Indian and South African contingents held representatives from almost every continent, with a rare mixture of languages. Three divisions were formed and definite work laid out for each.

After an eighteen-day campaign for control of the border around Kilimanjaro, a concerted movement of converging forces began, with the object of pressing in upon the Germans from all sides. By consulting the map one can get a clear conception of these operations. Nearest the coast, General Smuts conducted the main column of invasion (Major-General Haskins' 1st

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Division and Major-General Brits's 3rd Division) toward Mrogoro and the Rufiji River. The 2nd Division, led by Major-General J. L. Van Deventer, advanced upon the Central Railway between Kilimatinde, and Kilosa; while from the northern end of Lake Nyasa, the reinforced troops from Rhodesia and Nyasaland under their new head, Brigadier-General Ed-

THE GERMANS DRIVEN OUT OF ONE POSITION AFTER ANOTHER.

The campaign around Kilimanjaro, begun on March 5, 1916, was an enveloping operation of two columns, one moving from northwest of the mountain, the other from the southeast. The latter, General Van Deventer's, advanced upon Taveta, which was evacuated on the ninth; then through the



MAKING STRAIGHT A HIGHWAY FOR CIVILIZATION

By such construction gangs as this was most of the labor done that opened parts of Africa to access by rail. Before General Smuts took over the command, General Tighe, in preparation for invading the Kilimanjaro region, pushed forward a branch of the Uganda Railway from Voi toward the enemy position at Taveta.

Henry Ruschin.

ward Northey, worked northeast with Neu Iringa as an objective. General Tombeur, of Belgian Congo, ready now for his first real offensive move, divided his force into separate columns, one of which operated along the eastern side of Tanganyika, while two others drove southeast upon Tabora, with the support of a British column from Victoria Nyanza, whose leader was Brigadier-General Sir Charles P. Crewe. The enemy were thus squeezed out of position after position, often escaping by some unsuspected route, concealed, even when close at hand, by the thick bush growth.

mountain pass toward Moshi, which they occupied on the thirteenth. A few days later Kahe Station, by the Pangani River, had been seized and an advance made to Arusha; but the Germans had managed to get away farther east. Now, however, a base had been established on the enemy's own soil and by quick action this had been accomplished before the rains began. The branch railway was farther extended to Kahe, to link together the Uganda and Usambara lines, thus aiding communication. The work progressed at an average of a mile a day. Headquarters were moved to Moshi.

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General Van Deventer's Division, without pausing, made a remarkable forced march across difficult country, though without adequate provisioning, to surprise the enemy at Kondoa Irangi. The position became theirs on April 19, after which they paused to recover strength, both men and horses having been thoroughly exhausted. Their movement had the effect anticipated by General Smuts, as it forced von Lettow to weaken his hold in

had taken possession of Wilhelmstal and Korogwe, whither he turned to join Sheppard's force at Handeni. They came together there on June 20, a day after Sheppard had entered the town, the Germans dropping south among the Nguru Mountains, where they began to gather together their strength. Handeni now became the seat of British General Headquarters.

By the combined efforts of land and naval forces, the coast region was



ON THREE WHEELS AND A TREE-TRUNK

Difficulties of transport were great enough, under the best conditions, in the East African treks over rough, irregular, scrubby ground; but this thirteen-pounder, having lost a wheel, is managing with an improvised runner to keep its place in the Kilimanjaro Column. It is uphill work, but neither men nor guns can be spared.

Usambara by transferring some 4000 men to the vicinity of Kondoa Irangi where a last German offensive stroke, attempted in May, ended in failure.

THE GERMANS DRIVEN OUT OF THE USAMBARA HILLS.

General Smuts seized this moment for forcing the remaining Germans out of the Usambara Hills. His main column, including Sheppard's and Beves's brigades, pushed through heavy bush on the left bank of the unfordable Pangani River, guarded on their left by Hannington's brigade, which proceeded along the railway, while some of the King's African Rifles skirted around the Pare Mountains. By the middle of June, Hannington

cleared, during July and August, as far south as Bagamoyo. This made it possible to move the British base from Mombasa to Tanga. Meanwhile Colonel Olsen's Tanganyika division of the Belgian army on the east side of the lake, before the first week of August had secured Ujiji and Kigoma, at the western end of the Central Railway, whence they soon started eastward. Another force, crossing the lake, had taken Karema before moving toward Tabora. Colonel Molitor, with the other columns, after taking Kigali, east of Lake Kivu, had moved on the way to Tabora; and Sir Charles Crewe had secured a good base in Mwanza, on Victoria Nyanza.

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General Northey's advance from the southwest started at the end of May. While some of the forces operated in the area of Bismarckburg, clearing it of the enemy, the main body marched north from the shore of Lake Nyasa, occupying Neu Langenburg on May 30. The southern German detachment under Captain Count Falkenstein, made a firm stand at Melangali, with

THE GERMAN COMMANDER ESCAPES FROM MROGORO.

"To bottle up the enemy in Mrogoro" was General Smuts' next aim. There were the German administrative headquarters, and there were both the Governor, Dr. Schnee, and Colonel von Lettow-Vorbeck. While General Smuts drove southward, Van Deventer came on from the west, occupying



A PATH THROUGH THE WILDERNESS

Many thousand carriers had to be employed for transporting provisions through the regions where there were no railways and no wagon roads. These natives, accompanying General Northey's column, furnish but a suggestion of the lines of human pack-bearers that were traversing the African wilds, "over hill, over dale, thorough bush, thorough brier," to supply the armies.

the purpose of preventing Northey's force "from co-operating with Van Deventer's. But the Germans, including the surviving members of the Königsberg crew, were dislodged and had to give way on July 24.

Returning to General Van Deventer's line, we find that he resumed activity at the end of June, pressing forward to Dodoma. Divergent lines pushed out, at the same time, to take Singida and Kilimatinde. With the latter place occupied and Kikombo, fifteen miles east of Dodoma, as well, a hundred miles of the Central Railway had fallen under British control.

Mpapua on August 12 and Kilossa on the twenty-second. Finding Mrogoro unsafe, the enemy evacuated it on the twenty-fourth, slipping southward by a route unknown to his pursuers, and so evading a flanking turn made to entrap him. Mrogoro was entered by Sheppard and Beves on August 26. The pursuit of the retreating enemy, who fought strong rear-guard actions on the way, was pushed on through difficult hill country until the Rufiji River was reached. Van Deventer, at the same time, had advanced across the Ruaha, and Northey was not far away, reaching Iringa on August 29.

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The lake divisions, turning, threatened Tabora, which the German Government had intended as the capital of the protectorate. There most of the prisoners of war and enemy aliens had been interned (and not too happily entertained). On September 19, the garrison withdrew, starting in the direction of Mahenge, although they would have to pass both Van Deventer's and Northey's armies. Sir Charles Crewe's column made sure of the Central Railway between Tabora and Kilimatinde, then, having accomplished the service required of it, this column was abolished. The German group from Tabora, commanded by General Wahle, fought various engagements with General Northey's men before breaking through, as they eventually did, to join the contingent on the healthful Mahenge plateau.

THE WHOLE COAST IS OCCUPIED DURING THE AUTUMN.

On September 3 the former capital, Dar-es-Salaam, surrendered, whereupon the other coast towns, Kilwa, Mikindani and Lindi quickly followed. Dar-es-Salaam and Kilwa were immediately utilized as new and valuable centres. In the former place the enemy, before leaving, had done what damage they could, wrecking the harbor and the railway station and running locomotives into the sea. Numbers of bridges on the Central Railway had been destroyed, too.

At the end of the year, in order to prepare for the hard conditions of the remaining struggle, which would be largely in low malarial country, General Smuts reorganized his divisions, sending to South Africa about 12,000 white troops who had been rendered unfit by hard campaigning, and replacing them as far as possible by natives inured to the climate and its conditions. Various shifts in the command and composition of the forces were made.

A short campaign undertaken in January, 1917, to round up the enemy by cutting off his retreat at the Rufiji and preventing the sections on the Mahenge from uniting, failed of its end. Van Deventer and Northey lost

their quarry in the deep bush, and Sheppard's brigade reached the Rufiji only to discover that von Lettow-Vorbeck had destroyed the bridge and had already removed his men to the other side of the river.

GENERAL SMUTS IS SUMMONED TO LONDON.

In the fighting that took place just before reaching the Rufiji, there fell the most distinguished of African naturalists and hunters, Captain F. C. Selous, who, in spite of his sixty-four years, had been serving with "conspicuous gallantry, resource and endurance" in the 25th Fusiliers. His death and that of Lieutenant Wavell, exactly a year before, were a loss to the world as well as to their colleagues and subordinates.

Rains, extraordinarily long and heavy even for that country, prevented any great activity for the time; and, besides, on January 26, General Smuts left for London whither he had been called to represent South Africa in the War Cabinet. His successor was Major-General Hoskins, formerly in command of the 1st Division. In May, the supreme command passed into the hands of General Van Deventer.

The sadly reduced forces of the enemy were grouped by this time in two main bodies—between four and five thousand under von Lettow-Vorbeck in the valley of the Matandu River, and between two and three thousand with Tafel near Mahenge. When foraging or raiding parties broke away they were followed by companies of mounted British. One such band, under a man named Naumann, made a wide sweep through the country, being caught after several months, about two thousand miles from the starting point.

THE REMNANT OF THE GERMAN FORCES IN PORTUGUESE TERRITORY.

Until March 9, 1916, Portuguese East Africa (Mozambique) was neutral territory; but on that date Portugal became a belligerent, fighting with the Allies. Her part, then, in Africa, was to hold the front at the Rovuma River if an attempt should be made to escape across it. The Portu-

guese even advanced a short distance into the territory north of the river, taking back a part that had once been theirs.

Toward this frontier, through the months of 1917, von Lettow-Vorbeck withdrew under pressure from the north and from Kilwa and Lindi, but not without vigorous fighting. Farther west, Tafel was trying to escape the encircling forces of Northey's troops and the Belgian armies. Before the year was out there had come an end to the hardy resistance of both little companies. In spite of the Portuguese patrol on the Rovuma, von Lettow-Vorbeck with some two thousand followers slipped across into Mozambique, on November 25-26. Two days later, Tafel, caught in unfamiliar country and lacking food for his men, surrendered unconditionally, giving up "19 officers, 92 other Europeans, over 1,200 askari (native soldiers), and some 2,200 other natives." On December 1, 1917, General Van Deventer reported that German East Africa was completely cleared of the enemy, and that the whole of the German overseas possessions had passed into British and Belgian hands.

B BRITISH TESTIMONY ON THE QUALITY OF THE GERMAN RESISTANCE.

From General Van Deventer's own words we catch something of the tone and spirit of the opposing masses engaged in battle upon the wild expanse of East Africa. He says: "The morale of the enemy never wavered, and nothing but the determined gallantry and endurance of our troops finally crushed him. To the infantry,—British, South African, Indian, West and East African,—I owe unqualified thanks and praise, and especially to the regimental officers who set an example which all have followed." Nor must the Belgians be forgotten. General Tombeur had succeeded from the first in holding back the enemy on his border, at the same time co-operating with the British in Rhodesia and on Lake Tanganyika. In the later campaigns the Belgian contingents (native soldiers with European leaders) took

their full part and suffered severe losses.

Losses on both sides had been very heavy in proportion to the numbers engaged, sickness adding many to the number of deaths. The reports show that in the period from May to November, 1917, the British lost, in action alone, 6,000; and that there were killed and captured, in that time, 1,618 Germans and 5,482 natives. It is estimated that altogether the enemy force had been reduced by nine-tenths of its personnel before German East Africa was cleared.

T THE LAST DAYS OF GERMAN FIGHTING IN AFRICA.

The little remnant with von Lettow-Vorbeck moved rapidly toward the centre of Mozambique, half-way between Lake Nyasa and the sea. The campaign of pursuit, directed by General Van Deventer, and prosecuted chiefly by native soldiers, King's African Rifles and a Nigerian brigade, under the lead of General Northey and others, was intended to be "one of virtual extermination." But, although the pursuing lines pressed in from east and west, the retreat was so rapid as to keep for the most part in advance of both British and Portuguese forces. Now and again there was fighting, when detachments of the opponents came together. But von Lettow-Vorbeck increased the difficulties of the pursuers by buying the favor of natives with rich gifts out of the booty he gathered from Portuguese settlements as he moved along. He was provided with food and shelter and assured that false information would be offered to the troops that were following on his track. South he hurried, then east toward the coast, north and west, even back across the Rovuma into the old territory again. Next, he turned to Northern Rhodesia and attacked Fife, on the border. November 11, 1918, the day of the Armistice, found him at the head-waters of the Congo in Northern Rhodesia. There he promptly submitted to the local magistrate, and on November 25 made formal surrender at Abercorn with considerable ceremony.



A BOLSHEVIST NAVAL DETACHMENT GOING SOUTH

Some of the most enthusiastic Bolsheviks came from the Navy. After killing their officers they scattered in all directions. These had boarded a train by force and were on their way to the interior of Russia to enjoy the new prosperity which was to come to every one with the triumph of Bolshevism.



SAILORS PLUNDERING THE COUNTRY AS THEY PASSED

Other sailors from the fleets took possession of machine guns which they mounted in an open car with iron sides. They traveled leisurely from station to station, terrorizing the people, and plundering the houses and shops wherever they stopped. Any towns or men who attempted to resist them were treated with great severity. Generally, however, the populace was too much bewildered to make any effective resistance.



Armored Cars Used by the Bolsheviks

CHAPTER LIX

Russia Makes A Separate Peace

FRUITLESS NEGOTIATIONS AT BREST-LITOVSK ARE FOLLOWED BY ANOTHER INVASION

THE Bolsheviks were in power. Through an armed uprising, practically through a military mutiny, they had seized control of the government machinery. But for all that too much importance should not be attached to the personalities at the head of the Bolshevik Party and their doctrines. To this day the average Russian probably knows little more of Lenin's theories of government than does the average American. Furthermore, Lenin has modified and changed his policy whenever he found it not adapted to practical affairs. The Bolsheviks came into power on one very big issue, and that was the question as to whether the war should be continued, or whether peace should be made at any cost.

THE BOLSHEVIKI GAIN POWER ON THE ISSUE OF PEACE.

Russia was beaten far worse than Germany was beaten, when later she sued for peace. Not only was the Russian military organization smashed, the economic machinery ceasing to move, but the Russian mujik, in the uniform of the Russian soldier, was heartily sick of further fighting. He wanted to stop fighting and go home. That was why he listened to Bolshevik "propaganda," and that was why he shoved Kerensky out of power and allowed Lenin and Trotzky to get in.

All the reforms that interested him had been promised by Kerensky also. Kerensky, though quite as good a Socialist as Lenin, had been more honest, or perhaps more practical, for he had realized that a Socialist Republic could only be established in Russia by evolutionary means, and that a political revolution was only the clearing away of obstacles which were arbitrarily checking the evolutionary processes.

LENIN DESIRED PEACE TO BUILD HIS IDEAL STATE.

Lenin, at least, was undoubtedly sincere in his belief that peace at almost any cost was essential to the establishment of a social-organization based on his theories. Some of his associates probably genuinely shared this conviction with him; those that did not at any rate realized that they must give the rank and file of the soldiers what they wanted if they were to remain in power, and that was peace.

The first informal notice of the peace negotiations which the Bolsheviks proposed to initiate was issued on November 20, 1917, when an announcement was made, stating that, "when the new government is firmly established the Cabinet will, without delay, make a formal offer of an armistice to all the belligerents, enemy and ally."

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The Commander-in-Chief, General Dukhonin, was at the same time notified to open communications with the Germans under a flag of truce, to offer a cessation of hostilities for the purpose of opening peace negotiations.

For several days the Lenin Government received neither reply nor acknowledgment from headquarters. Finally, three days later, on November 23,

allowed General Kornilov, who was still a prisoner at headquarters, to escape.

A proclamation was then issued to the army and navy ordering individual units to open negotiations with the enemy, regardless of commanding officers, though the power to sign an agreement for an armistice was reserved to the Petrograd Government.



ENSIGN KRYLENKO, ONCE THE BOLSHEVIST COMMANDER

Krylenko was a non-commissioned officer in the army who was made Minister of War by the Bolsheviks, and afterward, commanded the armies. Little information concerning him reached the western World, and after a time he disappeared from the news entirely. Apparently he was a man of little ability and could have had little military knowledge.

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telephone communication with Dukhonin was established.

The General wished first to know whether the proposal of a general peace had been communicated to all of Russia's allies, and whether they had replied.

"These are not questions that concern you," replied Lenin. "You are simply to obey our instructions."

Still Dukhonin insisted, whereupon he was dismissed, and "Ensign" Krylenko, who had been appointed Commissary, or Minister of War, was sent to take his place. Several days later Dukhonin was killed by his own soldiers, because, apparently, he had

Trotsky, Commissary for Foreign Affairs, then sent a note to the representatives of all the Allied belligerents, worded, in part, as follows:

TROTSKY PROPOSES AN IMMEDIATE ARMISTICE ON ALL FRONTS.

"Drawing your attention to the text of an offer of an armistice and a democratic peace, based on no annexations or indemnities, and the self-determination of nations, approved by the All-Russian Congress of Soldiers' and Workmen's Delegates, I have the honor to beg you to regard the above document as the formal offer of an immediate armistice on all fronts,

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and the immediate opening of peace negotiations, an offer with which the authoritative Government of the Russian Republic has addressed itself simultaneously to all the belligerent peoples and their governments."

In the afternoon of Nov. 28, 1917, a Russian delegation, preceded by a trumpeter carrying a white flag, crossed the lines near Dvinsk and began a parley with the Germans. The Russian delegation, after being blindfolded, was conducted behind the German lines, and there kept while the German commander entered into communication by wire with the German High Command. At midnight the following reply was received from German Headquarters:

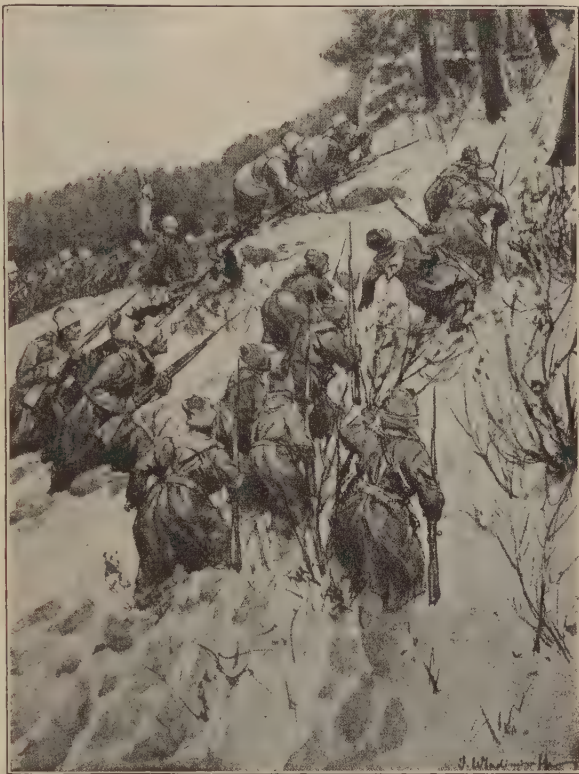
**THE GERMAN AUTHORITIES
AGREE TO AN ARMISTICE.**

"The Chief of the German Eastern Front is prepared to enter into negotiations with the Russian chief command. The Chief of the German Eastern Front is authorized by the German Commander-in-Chief to carry on negotiations for an armistice. The Chief of the Russian armies is requested to appoint a commission with written authority to be sent to the headquarters of the German Eastern Front. The German commander, on his part, will name a similar commission."

The date fixed for the beginning of the negotiations was December 2, at the headquarters of the German Eastern Front, at Brest-Litovsk.

Meanwhile the elections to the Constituent Assembly were allowed to take place, in spite of the fact that the Bolshevik programme recognized only such suffrage as was based on the "proletariat workers and peasants." On November 26, 1917, the election returns for Petrograd gave the Bolsheviks 272,000 votes, as compared to 211,000 cast by the Constitutional Democrats and 116,000 by the Social Revolutionists. These exact figures

are disputed, but according to all accounts the Bolsheviks fell short of a majority. The most favorable reports gave them about forty-five per cent of the whole. Some accounts give them a much smaller vote.



THE LAST FIGHTING ON THE RUMANIAN BORDER

THE PUBLICATION OF SECRET DOCUMENTS FROM THE ARCHIVES.

During this same period, the Government carried out its policy of publicity for all state affairs by publishing the secret treaties in the archives of the Department of Foreign Affairs. Among them were some sensational documents. One plainly indicated that the Government had deliberately sacrificed Rumania, if not to help the enemy, at least to save the Russian forces. The promises of extensive territorial annexations made to Italy to bring her into the war on the side of the Allies were plainly indicated. But, on the whole, little was shown which had not already been at least rumored in the press months before.

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The only resistance to Bolshevik rule at this time was in those regions dominated by the Cossack chiefs. Kornilov, it will be remembered, had escaped from Staff Headquarters, and with a small force of his faithful Cossacks, had made his way to the Don, where he joined General Kaledin, who had immediately raised the banner of revolt against the Bolshevik Government. Making Rostov his headquarter-



GENERAL VON BESELER
GERMAN MILITARY GOVERNOR OF POLAND
ters, he was able for some time to establish here an anti-Bolshevik military state.

THE UKRAINE MAKES A MOVE FOR INDEPENDENCE.

More important, though of a very different character, was the action of the Ukraine. The Ukrainian people live in parts or the whole of the Russian governments (or provinces) of Volhynia, Chernygov, Kherson, Kiev, Ekaterinoslav, Podolia, Kharkov, Poltava, Taurida, and in Galicia, extending from the Black Sea to the Crimea and to the territory of the Don Cossacks.

In the early part of the Kerensky régime the Ukrainians had shown a

strong tendency to establish an independent state. Now that the Bolsheviks had risen to power, the Popular Assembly, known as the Rada, on November 26, 1917, proclaimed the Ukraine independent. This action the Petrograd Government could not protest, if it were to remain true to its principle of the "self-determination" of all peoples. Nor did it, officially, but it made strong efforts to support the Bolshevik elements in the Ukraine, who were in favor of recognizing the authority of Petrograd.

THE UKRAINIAN GOVERNMENT SEEKS GERMAN AID.

The Rada represented the prosperous peasant and rich landlord class, and naturally was strongly opposed to the Bolsheviks. Later this element received the active support of Germany and its official representatives became mere puppets in the hands of the German High Command.

Finland followed a similar course. A conservative government declared Finland's independence on December 5, 1917, which declaration the Bolsheviks tacitly recognized, though here too, as in the Ukraine, they strongly supported a large and active Bolshevik element. And here, too, as in the Ukraine, in its effort to get away from ultra-radical influences, the government went over to Germany.

RUMANIA FORCED RELUCTANTLY TO SEEK FOR PEACE.

Deeply involved in this general situation was little Rumania, surrounded as she was on the one side by the Austrians and Bulgarians, her mortal enemies, and on the other by the Russians, who contemplated peace with those same enemies. For a while the Rumanian Government at Jassy issued proclamations, expressing a strong determination to continue the fight against the Central Empires alone. But hardly had the last of them been uttered, on December 7, 1917, when the Rumanians, too, joined the general rush to enter into negotiations with the Central Empires.

Meanwhile, down on the Caucasus front, where another independent state was proclaiming itself, the Turks took



ALLIED MISSIONS ON THEIR WAY OUT OF RUSSIA

After the Russian Revolution Allied missions were sent to aid the Russians in any way possible. With the triumph of the Bolsheviks and the dissolution of the army they became useless, and withdrew by way of Murmansk. Sometimes the news of the approach of Bolshevik bands caused the director to stop the trains and to prepare to repel attack.



FRENCH SOLDIERS CLEARING UP A WRECK

The railroad to the Murman coast had been built during the war and the track was in exceedingly poor condition. Wrecks were frequent and one occurred immediately in front of the train in which the Allied missions were traveling, toward Murmansk. Some of the French soldiers attached to the mission were sent on ahead to clear the track, as the railway force was utterly demoralized, and incapable of intelligent effort.

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the initiative, and proposed to the Russian forces there that they cease fighting, which was accordingly done.

THE PETROGRAD GOVERNMENT PROCEEDS TO ABOLISH CAPITALISM.

In Petrograd the main business of the Soviet Government was to further the peace negotiations, but it proceeded to publish some of its favorite theories. On November 26, 1917, a decree was

mittees, elected by the workers within a given district, were created to take charge of the production of commodities. This system was also a failure.

THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT SAVES RUSSIA FROM COLLAPSE.

What saved the Soviet Government from complete economic breakdown at this juncture was the Russian Co-operative Movement, the co-operative



BOLSHEVIKI SEEKING TO SPREAD THEIR FAITH

When the Bolshevik doctrines were spreading over the country such a sight as this was common. Parties marched from town to town attempting to make converts, peaceably if they could, forcibly if necessary. Some advocates of the new régime were as fanatical in their desire to spread their belief as ever were the followers of Mohammed.

issued abolishing all class distinctions. More important still, "capitalism" as a system was abolished, and the production and distribution of all commodities was declared to be the business of the state.

Nor was this an empty phrase. Factories, warehouses, stores and banks, through this and various other decrees, were actually confiscated and taken over by the soviets. At first the factories were turned over to the management of committees elected by the workingmen actually employed within their four walls. This system proved a dismal failure. Then regional com-

societies previously mentioned which, through their federations, carried on manufacturing for their own members. During the Kerensky régime this movement had experienced phenomenal growth and development. Though the leaders of the co-operatives were strongly opposed to the Bolsheviks and had denounced their forcible seizure of power, they were compelled to accept the fact and, to a certain degree, act in co-operation with the soviets. And Lenin, on the other hand, more and more left the actual business of production and distribution to the co-operative organization, for eventually

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he came to recognize the failure of his Marxian theories when applied to actual practice.

ALL ARMY OFFICERS ARE REDUCED TO THE RANKS.

On December 16 a decree was issued reducing all army officers to the ranks and authorizing the rank and file to elect their own officers. This was the final blow to the morale of what was still left of the Russian Army. Truly

THE FIRST CONFERENCE HELD AT BREST-LITOVSK.

Meanwhile the efforts to bring about a peace conference continued. As already indicated, the Petrograd Government had declared that it did not desire a separate peace with the Central Empires, but a general peace. The Allied belligerents made no reply to Trotzky's note to that effect. On the contrary, they had strongly protested



WHERE THE CONFERENCE MET AT BREST LITOVSK

After some discussion the Germans, Austrians, Turks and Bulgarians agreed to negotiate with the Bolshevik government. The German High Command fixed December 2 as the date on which the conference should open at the headquarters of the German Eastern Front at Brest Litovsk. This is a manufacturing town in the government of Grodna in old Russia.

this was the same principle on which the American militia organization was based, before the war, but in the face of such an organization of force as the German Army it was utterly impracticable.

The property of the Church was also confiscated. The actual church buildings and their equipment were declared state property, to be rented out to the priesthood. The vast estates were apportioned for future distribution among the poorer landless peasantry. In fact, the peasants in the neighborhood took possession without waiting for authority, just as the peasants had done in France during the French Revolution.

against the proposed peace negotiations but these protests had been addressed to the Russian Chief Command, at Moghilev. On November 30, Count Czernin, Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister, addressed a note to the Petrograd Government, stating that his Government was ready to proceed to negotiate. Thus Austria-Hungary was the first to extend official recognition to the Bolshevik Cabinet.

On December 2, according to agreement, the Russian delegation again crossed over to the German lines and was escorted to Brest-Litovsk. Three days later an official account of the negotiations was issued from Petrograd.

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"The conference opened in the presence of the representatives of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria. Field Marshal von Hindenburg and Field Marshal Hötendorff charged Prince Leopold of Bavaria with the negotiations, and he in his turn nominated his Chief of Staff, General Hoffman.

"Our delegates opened the conference with a declaration of our peace aims, in view of which an armistice was proposed. The enemy delegates replied that that was a question to be solved by the politicians. They said they were soldiers, having power to negotiate only conditions of an armistice, and could add nothing to the declaration of Foreign Ministers Czernin and von Kuhlmann.

"... Our representatives submitted a project for an armistice on all fronts elaborated by our military experts. The principal points of this subject were: first, an interdiction against sending forces on our fronts to the fronts of our allies, and, second, the retirement of German detachments from the islands around Moon Sound. ... The enemy delegation declared that our conditions were unacceptable, and could be addressed only to a conquered people. ..."

THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT AGREES TO SUSPEND HOSTILITIES TEMPORARILY.

On December 6 the Berlin Government announced that a suspension of hostilities had finally been agreed upon in writing, to last ten days and to affect the whole front from the Baltic to the Black Sea. During this period a regular armistice would be negotiated.

On this same day, December 6, Trotzky sent a note to all the Allied belligerents announcing that the negotiations would be suspended for seven days, to give the peoples of those countries time in which to make up their minds whether or not they would participate. This note added that no armistice would be signed by the Russians which would permit the Germans to transport their troops from the Eastern to other fronts. To this communication none of the Allied Governments made any reply.

THE BREST-LITOVSK CONFERENCE BEGINS ITS SITTINGS.

At the end of the ten days a regular armistice was agreed upon, to go into effect immediately, on December 17, and to last until January 14, 1918. The first sitting of the actual peace conference began on December 22. At the head of the German delegation were Foreign Minister, Dr. Richard von Kuhlmann and General Hoffman. Count Czernin was the chief representative of Austria-Hungary. Popov, a member of the Bulgarian Cabinet, headed the Bulgarian delegation, while Nesimiy Bey, Turkish Foreign Minister, represented his Government. Russia was represented by "Citizens" Joffe, Kamenev, Bibenko, Pokrosky, Karaghan, Lubinski, Weltman, Pawlovitch, Admiral Altwater, General Tumorri, Colonel Rokki, Colonel Zelpitt and Captain Lipsky.

Von Kuhlmann was elected chairman. His opening speech was profusely garnished with flowery phrases, but was markedly deficient in any definite basis on which the Central Powers were willing to rest the "democratic" peace which the Russians proposed. Thanks to the policy of publicity pursued by the Petrograd Government, all the proceedings of the conference were published in detail, a proceeding which more than once roused the ire of the German Government.

THE RUSSIAN PROPOSALS FOR PEACE PRESENTED.

The Russian delegates then presented their demands, comprising fifteen paragraphs, of which the following is the essence:

Evacuation of all Russian territory by Germany and Austria; autonomy for Poland, the Baltic provinces and Turkish Armenia; settlement of the Alsace-Lorraine problem by referendum; restoration of Belgium, Serbia and Montenegro, with financial assistance from an international fund; Serbia to have access to the Adriatic; complete autonomy for Bosnia and Herzegovina; complete restoration of Rumania, with autonomy for the Dobrudja; equal rights for Jews in all territories; restoration of the German colonies; neutraliza-

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tion of all maritime straits leading to inland waters, including the Suez and Panama canals; no indemnities; forcible contributions levied during the war to be refunded; no commercial boycotts after the war; abolition of all previous secret treaties; general disarmament, militia to take the place of standing armies.

THE GERMANS TURN THEIR OWN STATEMENTS AGAINST THE BOLSHEVIKI.

On Christmas Day the Central Powers made a formal reply of such a nature that it attracted world-wide attention. For from the verbiage in which the answer was couched, this thought stood out: that, since the Russians recognized the principle of the "self-determination of small nationalities," therefore they renounced all claims to the Baltic provinces. The future of these provinces would be determined by conditions which were obviously under the control of Germany since she was in military occupation of those territories. In plain language, Germany said: "Since you don't want those territories, hand them over to us."

Meetings in Petrograd were held and literally boiled over with rage against Germany. Trotzky, with his usual verbosity, pointed out that his "diplomacy" had forced Germany to reveal her true self from under her lately assumed robe of hypocrisy. As a matter of fact, even in the Allied countries the general indignation against the Bolsheviki for proposing peace negotiations was giving place to a milder attitude, not unmingled with approval of what was one of the plainest exposures of Germany's real war aims which had yet taken place. The situation obviously inspired the speech made by President Wilson, on January 8, 1918, in which the war aims of the United States were definitely stated.

THE BOLSHEVIKI ATTEMPT TO GAIN CONVERTS AMONG THE GERMANS.

Trotzky, indeed, showed himself in a triumphant mood. There can be little doubt that he and his associates had not expected Germany to agree to their peace proposals. Trotzky possibly hoped to expose the imperialistic aims

of Germany to the whole world, but especially to the people of the Central Empires, in the hope that thereby he would stimulate them to initiate the great world-wide social revolution, which would sweep the "capitalist" governments out of power. To expedite this event he had instituted a system of propaganda among the German and Austrian soldiers on the



PRINCE LEOPOLD OF BAVARIA

Eastern Front on a truly colossal scale. Literally carloads of literature, printed in all the languages spoken by the peoples of the Central Empires, were shipped to the front and smuggled over the lines to the enemy soldiers. Trotzky had no doubt that this would take due effect. Here he made a mistake. The Germans are temperamentally disinclined to follow the methods appealing to the more individualistic Russians.

On January 2, after a session of the Executive Committee of the Soviet, the Petrograd Government made known its rejection of the German counter-proposals. Indeed, the German answer was made the subject of a pamphlet which was shipped across the lines as further propaganda. On that same date the

chairman of the Russian peace delegation sent a communication to the heads of the enemy delegations, signifying his desire to continue the peace conference in a neutral country, and suggested that the next conference be held in Stockholm. This was possibly a manœuvre to place the Germans in a still more unpleasant position, and was successful, in that it made it apparent that the Germans feared the light of publicity. At any rate, they refused to move the seat of the conference outside of territory under their control, and Trotzky's press bureau made the most of it.

THE GERMANS SURPRISED AT THE BOLSHEVIST OBJECTIONS.

The Germans seemed genuinely surprised and pained that the Petrograd Government had rejected their counter-proposals. The German Kaiser called a conference of all the military leaders. On the following day Chancellor von Hertling addressed the Main Committee of the Reichstag and in a somewhat heated manner stated the German position. A number of Socialist members dissented strongly, and insisted that the German policy regarding the Baltic provinces was decidedly wrong.

On January 10, 1918, the next session of the conference assembled at Brest-Litovsk, and now Trotzky himself headed the Russian delegation. The Russians were now rather surprised by the appearance of a Ukrainian delegation, which disputed their right to represent the Ukraine. Later it became obvious that the Ukrainian delegation was largely a German creation, and was to be utilized as a pawn to be played against the Petrograd delegation, and this they managed to do rather cleverly.

TROTZKY SUCCEEDS IN IRRITATING THE GERMAN DELEGATION.

The Germans seemed to resent very much the presence of Trotzky, who managed to trample upon all the traditions of diplomatic history.

"We were getting along very amiably together," remarked von Kuhlmann, in one of his reports, "when Trotzky appeared, and then the whole atmosphere darkened."

As another instance, a committee

had prepared a clause stating "that the contracting parties have resolved henceforward to live in peace and friendship, etc.,"

"Purely decorative!" exclaimed Trotzky. "That phrase does not at all express the future relations which shall exist between us."

Trotzky certainly made no effort to obtain his end by tact. His attitude continued irritating, as though his object were to excite the Germans to indiscretion. So unbearable became his behavior that at one time General Hoffmann leaped to his feet exclaiming:

"One might think that you were the conqueror, we the vanquished, and that you stood here dictating terms!"

THE CONFERENCE ADJOURNS WITHOUT APPROACHING AN AGREEMENT.

The conference again adjourned, without having progressed one degree toward a final settlement, yet Trotzky cheerfully expressed his willingness to meet again. Apparently he neither cared for nor expected a final agreement; his object was to play for time, to extend the negotiations. For almost daily not only he, but even the Allied world, expected to hear of disturbances behind the Teuton lines. There were many rumors of an uprising in Vienna. The Germans exerted every pressure to bring about a final understanding, but Trotzky and his associates remained obdurate.

That von Kuhlman was furious he made obvious four days later, during an address to the Main Committee of the Reichstag.

"Trotzky declared," he said bitterly, "that our authority rested on brute force. And I say that they themselves represent nothing but brute force."

"They thought we needed peace at any price," said Trotzky, on his return to Petrograd, before a Congress of the Soviets, "but they have learned their mistake. We shall insist on a democratic peace." The delegates to the Congress supported this declaration unanimously.

THE ALLIED ATTITUDE TOWARD THE BOLSHEVIKI NOT BITTER.

At this time Bolshevism had almost succeeded in gaining a large degree of

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good will of the peoples of the Allied countries, including the United States. The attitude was, that here is a rough-clad and rough-mannered fellow, but he means well. He proposes to beat the Germans in his own peculiar way.

This general feeling received a severe setback during the period that intervened before the peace conference convened again. In the middle of January the delegates to the Constituent Assembly began arriving in Petrograd, and on the 18th the first session was held with about 500 delegates present, to judge by the voting. Though the Bolsheviks had not a working majority, they were at least the principal element. Tchernov, an old-time revolutionist, and Minister of Agriculture for a time in the Kerensky Cabinet, was elected chairman, by a vote of 244 against 151. The first session continued rather turbulent, until it was terminated by the withdrawal of all the Bolshevik delegates in a body.

THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY IS FORCIBLY DISSOLVED.

On the following day the Government issued a decree abolishing the Constituent Assembly. This action, and the principle on which it was based—that the suffrage should only be extended to workers—created a serious split between the Bolsheviks and all other radicals, so serious that many of the latter were even willing to support foreign invaders in the hope of suppressing Bolshevism. The impression created in the Allied countries was equally bad, and many Socialists who had been ardent admirers of the Bolsheviks in their peace negotiations now turned bitterly against them.

On February 1, 1918, the peace negotiations were again resumed in Brest-Litovsk, Trotzky once more heading the Russian delegation. All this time the Petrograd Government had been straining every effort to pour more and still more propaganda into the grey masses of the German soldiery across the lines.

THE QUESTION OF THE BALTIC PROVINCES REMAINED UNSETTLED.

For nine days the delegates talked to each other across the table, but the

main point of difference remained the same. The Germans still refused to withdraw from what had formerly been Russian territory in order to allow the populations of those countries to declare themselves. The Germans took the stand that those countries had already declared themselves in favor of joining the German Empire.

On February 9 the indignation of the Russians was roused by the announcement of the Teutonic delegates that they had signed a peace treaty with the Ukrainian delegation. Some weeks previously the Ukrainian Bolsheviks had gained the upper hand in Kiev, and Trotzky had immediately taken the position that the Ukrainian delegation no longer represented the Ukraine. This was perhaps true, but the Germans had nevertheless hastened to sign an agreement with the faction which favored them. The Rada undoubtedly did favor the Germans, as their saviors from Bolshevism. And the Germans were prepared to raise their friends into power, if it happened that they were not in power at that moment.

THE RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT REFUSES EITHER TO MAKE A TREATY OR FIGHT.

On the 10th, in the afternoon, the last session of the conference was held, and still no agreement was arrived at. With bitter invective Trotzky denounced German imperialism, declaring that Russia would not submit to the German terms.

"Russia will not sign such a peace!" he shouted. Then he added what constituted a surprising climax—"Nor will she fight. There is neither peace nor war between you and us, but the responsibility rests on you."

Neither Trotzky nor his associates believed that Germany would again dare to resume military operations against Russia. And, indeed, there was every indication that the Germans did fear such a necessity. Assuredly it put them in the position of aggressors. It seemed extremely likely, even to many who doubted the likelihood of revolution in Germany, that the German soldiers would refuse to continue a campaign of conquest into Russia. In this as in so many other supposi-

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tions, they were deceived. The German soldier was not ready to revolt against the rulers he had obeyed so long

THE UKRAINIAN RADA NOW ASKS GERMAN AID.

The disappointment of the Teutonic Governments was plainly reflected in the German and Austrian newspapers. It was at this juncture that the Ukrain-

Trotzky's reply to the last offer of the German peace negotiators received the full approval of the Petrograd Government. Krylenko, in fact, gave the order for immediate demobilization. And then the Russians sat down to wait hopefully—but anxiously. Austria-Hungary, at least, showed no indication of intending further aggression. That country no longer had a common



LEOPOLD OF BAVARIA SIGNING THE ARMISTICE

Prince Leopold of Bavaria was charged with the negotiations with the Bolsheviki, though he did not take an active part in the discussions. Here he is seen to be signing the armistice between the Germans and the Russians. The Bolshevist delegations included several women, some of whom were more radical than the men. The Bolsheviki had not yet realized the full purport of the German plans. International Film Service

ian Rada issued an appeal for "help against the aggressions of the Bolsheviki." It was a clever trick. As a matter of fact, there was fighting in the Ukraine between the Bolsheviki and the forces of the conservative Rada, but the Bolsheviki were Ukrainian Bolsheviki, not invaders sent by the Petrograd Government. But the German and Austrian papers were instructed to make the most of this, and an appeal was published in practically all papers urging Germany to come to the rescue of the Ukrainians. Thus was created a moral pretext for a further advance into Russian territory.

frontier with Bolshevist Russia, and the terms of the peace with the Ukraine were perfectly satisfactory. On the 18th, the day the armistice expired, Vienna announced that it would not continue military operations in Russia.

THE GERMAN TROOPS ADVANCE INTO RUSSIAN TERRITORY.

Shortly after noon, on the 18th, German troops began pouring across the bridges over the Dvina. The news of the German advance acted on Petrograd like a galvanic shock. All that evening and all that night the Executive Committee of the Soviet sat in continuous session. Two strong

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factions developed, one led by Lenin, favoring peace on any terms, while the other, with Trotzky at its head, favored resistance, however ineffectual or costly it might be. All that night the two factions continued their heated argument and finally, as the grey light of dawn penetrated the windows of the council room, a vote was taken, and Lenin won out—by one vote.

After nearly a day's silence General Hoffman replied, saying that only a properly written and signed document could be considered, and that this should be sent to Dvinsk at once, by courier. These instructions were complied with immediately, but another four days passed before the Germans finally declared themselves ready to consider further peace nego-



AUSTRIAN PRISONERS RELEASED IN RUSSIA

Many Austrian prisoners in Russia were released after the Austro-Hungarian government announced that no further operations against the Bolsheviki would be undertaken. Some of them were unwilling to go back to their homes for fear that they would again be sent into the ranks, and, therefore, professed that they had been converted to Bolshevism.

Krylenko, as Commander-in-Chief, issued instructions that every Russian force which was attacked by Germans should make every endeavor to parley with the enemy and persuade them to desist. Where the enemy refused, resistance should be continued.

PETROGRAD, DISMAYED BY THE GERMAN ADVANCE, ASKS PEACE.

Meanwhile Petrograd sent a wireless message to the German High Command offering to reconsider the peace terms. The Germans, however, having begun the attack, and the German soldiers showing no inclination to refuse to obey their orders, were in no hurry to desist.

tiations. All this time the German troops swept onward, taking Pskov, Dvinsk, Werder, Lutsik and other places, which were either defended very feebly by the disorganized Russians, or were entered unopposed.

But the conditions under which the Germans were now willing to declare peace with Russia were considerably changed—they amounted to something very little better than unconditional surrender. There would be no armistice—the German soldiers would advance until the treaty was actually signed. Livonia and Esthonia must now be ceded outright to Germany, who



VILNA IN WEST RUSSIA

Vilna is an old city irregularly built at the confluence of the Vileika with the Vilja, 436 miles southwest of Petrograd. During the seventeenth century it was nearly ruined in the struggle between Russia and Poland, and was annexed by Russia in 1795. In 1915 it was occupied by the Germans. Ruschin

would dispose of them as she saw fit. Soviet Russia must recognize the conservative Rada of the Ukraine, and refrain from giving the Ukrainian Bolsheviks further assistance. Finally, Soviet Russia must demobilize completely. Even the volunteer Red Guards, the revolutionary militia which was being organized behind the lines, must be disbanded, save for such a force as was needed for police duty.

RUSSIA PRACTICALLY MAKES AN UN-CONDITIONAL SURRENDER.

Again Petrograd underwent a night of hot debate, but on February 24, 1918, the Executive Committee agreed to accept the German terms. On March 3 the Germans announced that they had halted the advance of their army into Russia, as the Russian delegation to

Brest-Litovsk had signed a treaty. During the operations close to 60,000 men had been captured, nearly 7,000 officers, 2,400 cannon, 5,000 machine guns and 800 locomotives. The territory added to German occupancy was all that part of Russia lying west of a line drawn from the Narva, on the Gulf of Finland, due south to Kiev, including Russian Poland, Lithuania, Esthonia, Livonia and the outlying islands in the Gulf of Finland. Trotzky's picturesque attitude in refusing to sign the treaty had lost the Petrograd Government territories amounting to almost a fourth of European Russia, inhabited by about a third of the population. By the new treaty Germany gained practical control of Russia.

ALBERT SONNICHSEN



The Relief Ship Strathness Entering Rotterdam

. CHAPTER LX

Belgium Under the German Yoke

A BELGIAN'S STORY OF LIFE IN HIS COUNTRY DURING THE FOURTH YEAR OF THE WAR

BY EMILE CAMMAERTS

Author of "Through the Iron Bars"

IF we try to imagine the life of the civilians in some big town of the occupied part of Belgium—Brussels, for instance—we must never forget that the far-away rumbling of the guns can often be heard, that at regular intervals the tramping of German patrols resounds in the streets, and that there is scarcely an hour in the day when expectant food queues do not line the pavement in the populous quarters of the city. These constant features of Belgian life will at once give us the atmosphere of the picture.

THE RUMBLING OF THE GUNS IN THE DISTANCE.

The guns sound quite near in the army zones of Luxemburg, Hainaut, and Flanders; but when the wind blows from the west, or when some important action is taking place, the drum-fire is heard distinctly as far as Brussels. The years of war have not yet dulled the people's attention to it. They stop in the street to listen to the low murmur. They wonder what is taking place. During the autumn of 1917, when the guns roared for weeks round the Ypres salient, they guessed the truth—that their masters were getting the worst of it. They even believed, in spite of the German communiqués, that the Allies had broken through,

and the rumors of a German defeat spread like wild-fire through Brussels.

THE BELGIANS NEVER LOST HOPE IN THE DARKEST HOURS.

Since the siege of Antwerp the Belgians have lived in this state of suspense, and though they have been disappointed again and again, they have not lost, after years of German oppression, the extraordinary faculty of creating good tidings and the most extraordinary readiness to believe in them. But whatever they may have imagined, the distant roar of the guns has remained the supreme argument. Every hope, every anxiety has been associated with it. Those who had sons, husbands, or friends in the Belgian Army shivered at the sound, for they knew that any offensive, even if successful, must be costly. To them, nevertheless, the distant voice of battle—the long drawn battle which must decide their fate and that of their country—is the inarticulate message of the outside world brought into their prison on the wings of the western breeze.

For the Belgians may have given up their weapons, they may be invaded, they may even, in certain parts of the country, be driven like slaves to work for the enemy, but they do not con-

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sider themselves out of the war. They sincerely believe that they are the vanguard of the Allied armies.

THE BELGIAN RESISTANCE A CONSIDERABLE HINDRANCE TO THE GERMANS.

This may well be exaggerated, though it seems evident that the resistance of Belgian civilians must considerably hamper German activity in this sector of their front. It may

try with spies and secret agents, and to line the Dutch frontier with sentries and two rows of electrified wire. These strong measures did not prevent 30,000 young men from joining the colors and filling the gaps caused by the first campaign.

Sometimes, however—very frequently in the army zone, less frequently in Antwerp and Brussels—the booming



BELGIANS FLEEING FROM THE GERMAN TERROR

The scene on the road between Brussels and Malines could be duplicated thousands of times. Leaving practically all their possessions, many fled anywhere in the hope of gaining safety from the dangers of which they had heard.

be almost impossible to estimate its importance in terms of men, but it is easy to realize that if Germany were able to add 500,000 Belgian workers to her industrial army, to leave the Dutch frontier unguarded, and to reduce to a minimum the personnel of the police, she would derive considerable advantages from such a situation. Instead of this, she has been obliged to deport the men before getting any work out of them, which attempt has proved a failure from every point of view, to demolish industrial plants and remove the machines before using them, to place strong garrisons in the largest towns, to flood the coun-

of the guns sounds quite close to the expectant civilians. Londoners grew accustomed to the alarms and excursions of hostile air raids, but it is one thing to see the risk of war brought near by German airmen and to listen with satisfaction to the din of the barrage directed against them, and to open one's paper on the next day to read that one or two of the enemy machines have been brought down. It is another to be bombed by one's own men and to be torn between the natural anxiety for the safety of one's family at home and the greater anxiety for the safety of the pilot of the frail machine surrounded with bursting shrapnel.

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ALL MISFORTUNES ATTRIBUTED TO GERMAN DESIGN.

In March, 1917, the burgomaster and the town of Ghent were condemned to pay a fine of 10,000 marks in the following circumstances: After an aerial bombardment which had caused the death of several civilians, the *Kommandantur* issued a poster publishing the names of the victims "killed

their own lines, even for the satisfaction of killing a few Belgians. But they know also that they started bombing open towns and that, if it had not been for them, there would have been no war—in any case, no war in Belgium. Others may wander from the essential principles of the struggle—they are not likely to do so; they are too often reminded of them.



LIFE'S WEARY PILGRIMAGE

Perhaps one of the most pathetic sides of the tragic fate of the refugees seeking at a wayside station for news of loved ones who were separated in the early confusion, and who tried to leave a message for family or friends. Notice the direction of the arrows urging on to further, weary, often fruitless search.

by British airmen." During the night some patriots substituted the words: "Killed by a German Zeppelin."

The German is not only the oppressor, he is the scapegoat, the cause of all troubles, of all sufferings. I believe that, if the rain spoiled the crops, the Boche would at once be made responsible for it in some way or another. There is a rough-and-ready justice in the popular mind. The peasants know, of course, that no German can spoil the crops, but they know that he can requisition them. The citizens of Ghent know, or ought to know, that it would not pay the Germans to bomb

It might have been expected that after three years and a half of waiting, and two years of severe privation, a population completely isolated from the rest of the world and fed on German censored news would show certain evident signs of lassitude. In every Allied country the Russian collapse, by postponing the prospect of an early settlement, has more or less encouraged pacifist devices. People realize that they have henceforth to choose between some form of compromise or a prolongation of the struggle and of the hardships it implies. It would therefore be only natural if such a reaction

were felt particularly strongly by a nation faced with starvation and feeling all the might of foreign oppression. In spite of this, I think I may safely say that in no country of the Entente is the *morale* so sound on the war among all classes of the population. This conviction is founded on the declara-

Now that the Central Empires have been strengthened and that the industrial population has been brought to the verge of starvation, they claim again the restoration of their country in its absolute freedom and independence, the payment by the Central Empires of an indemnity for the damage done in Belgium, and the liberation of the oppressed nationalities in Europe. They repudiate indignantly the policy pursued by the Russian Maximalists and by those who, in neutral and Allied countries, "stir up feelings of charity and humanity at the risk of sacrificing the most sacred rights of mankind." They remain convinced that "a satisfactory peace could only be concluded either through the military victory of the Allies, or through a radical transformation of ideas and institutions among the Central Powers."

The Catholics, under the energetic leadership of Cardinal Mercier, have maintained the most uncompromising attitude. The Germans are, for them, outside the pale of nations, and will remain there until they have atoned for their crimes. Again and again, in his pastoral letters and his sermons, the Cardinal has developed the idea that only punishment and repentance could wipe out the memory of the outrages committed, and that Divine justice stands above even Christian charity.

WHAT THE BELGIANS DISCUSSED IN THE HOME CIRCLES.

Such questions and many others concerning the future of the country are discussed every day, for it would be a mistake to think that social life is stopped in Belgium. There are, of course, no "functions" of any kind, and no public meetings are allowed by the authorities, except those of the activists. But behind the closed shutters of the mourning mansions of the aristocracy, in the cafés—at least, in



A FEARLESS PATRIOT AND PRIEST

Cardinal Mercier, Archbishop of Malines, Belgium, whose famous pastoral letter was suppressed by the German Governor of Belgium. *N. Y. Times*

tions of the authorized leaders of public opinion, on the unanimous testimony of neutral observers, and even on the avowal of the Germans themselves.

SOCIALISTS AND CATHOLICS ALIKE FIRM FOR RESISTANCE.

The official memoir of the Socialist Party, written in July, 1917, after the Russian collapse, is one of the most striking documents produced during the year. Already, in December, 1916, the Belgian Socialists had warned their "comrades" of the Entente against the dangers of a premature peace.



THE HARVEST OF GERMAN ARTILLERY

A striking picture of the destroyed shoe-market section of Antwerp looking towards the Cathedral which is the noblest and largest specimen of Gothic architecture in the Low Countries. The roof is supported by 125 pillars, and the tower, whose exquisite beauty Charles V was wont to compare to Mechlin lace, is a marvel of gracefulness.

N. Y. Times



REFUGEES FROM ANTWERP FLEEING FROM THEIR HOMES

In the second half of the fifteenth century Antwerp was the world mart of Europe, supplanting the other great Flemish cities, Bruges and Ghent. Under Charles V, as the principal station of the Hanseatic League and the centre of the money exchanges of Europe, the city was at the height of its splendor. Sieges and battles destroyed its prosperity, and it lost half of its population.

International Film Service

the Belgian cafés, which, by a kind of tacit consent, no German will enter—in the homes of the bourgeois and of the workman, people gather more frequently perhaps than before, because there is more leisure for many, and because it is the way to save light and coal.

War conditions have revived the old custom of the "veillée," when a few friends and neighbors meet in turn in one another's houses. The women knit for the prisoners, or mend the family's clothes—it has become almost impossible to buy new ones—the men smoke when some member of the gathering has been lucky enough to secure some tobacco; and there, around the slow-burning stove, under the lamp, after the last German proclamation has been ridiculed—there is one at least every week—and when the housewives have exchanged recipes concerning some wonderful new substitute, plans are made for the future of the country, and the war is discussed.

BELGIANS NOT ALL EITHER HEROES OR MARTYRS

I do not want to embellish this picture of Belgian life; I do not want in the least to convey the impression that all Belgians are either martyrs or heroes. This illusion has already done too much mischief. On the contrary, no people in Europe is more deeply and more openly human, with all the qualities and the weaknesses which the word implies. Whatever the Belgians are, they show it; they carry their character on their face, and their heart on the sleeve. They are unable to exercise self-restraint and to strike heroic attitudes. There is no classicism, no style about them, and no greater mistake could be made than to compare their action at the beginning of the war with that of Leonidas. The righteous feeling of a publican evicting a drunkard who is insulting his daughter is much more akin to the wild indignation which got hold of the average Belgian on the day of the ultimatum. Of the Belgian, perhaps more than of any other nation, it would be right to say, "It takes all sorts to make a world." It is unhap-

pily true, then, that in some quarters greed has exerted its humiliating influence. The Germans have been able to buy off a few consciences and some trades-people have not resisted the temptation to make fruitful bargains with the enemy. There is a small minority, a very small minority, of traitors and profiteers in Belgium; but, strange as it may seem, there are no pacifists.

When I asked the reason of one who, by his position, had traveled a good deal about the country, and had been brought into contact with people of all classes he said: "You wonder that we keep up our spirits in our German prison, cut off from the rest of the world. It is precisely because we do not hear too much about the Allies' efforts that we never doubt their success.

"The secret of our resistance is that we stand closer to Germany. We do not expect any miraculous concession from the German Imperialistic spirit, but, rightly or wrongly, we are convinced that we are witnessing the decline of this spirit. We do not believe in German organization and German efficiency, because we can see ourselves how disorganized and inefficient it can be. We do not believe in German cleverness, because none of their tricks ever caught us napping. And we believe in the Allies' success because we see the results of their efforts without thinking of the difficulties they may experience in making them."

THE TRAMP OF THE GERMAN SOLDIERS IN THE STREET.

Sometimes, at night when people talk quietly of their hopes and miseries, when their thoughts wander towards some Belgian soldier in the trenches or some prisoner in the cold hut of a German camp, footsteps are heard in the street in front of the door. It is a German patrol—a few privates, led by a non-commissioned officer; and for one moment the conversation stops and the women cease to sew. The rhythmic beating of the nailed boots on the rough pavement soon grows fainter. With a sigh of relief the women again bend their heads over their work, the men pull at their pipes, and, without

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further notice of this small incident, the talking is quietly resumed.

For you never know. At any moment the soldiers may stop, enter the house, and arrest one or more of the party. It might be here or it might be next door. It might be for some offense against the German regulations, or for nothing at all—an anonymous letter, or the denunciation

much energy in torturing their victims when nothing prevents them from deporting them according to their own sweet will. It is true that Burgomaster Max and a few other prominent citizens were never regularly tried, and were simply packed off to Germany as “undesirable.” But, as a rule, the oppressor likes to make a show of legality and to extract from the



SMUGGLING ON THE FRANCO-BELGIAN FRONTIER

Everybody traveling on the roads in this part of the country had to carry with them a certain permission from the temporary German military government. Nevertheless numerous attempts were made to carry on an extensive smuggling of goods into France. Many arrests of persons without passports took place, with consequent confiscation of goods.

Ruschin

of an “agent provocateur.” Some have left in the morning for their office or for their work and never been seen again. Once arrested, you are brought straight to the *Kommandantur*, and, if your cross-examination is not considered satisfactory, sent to the prison of St. Gilles or some other gaol and put for weeks into solitary confinement pending your trial by a German military court.

THE STORIES THAT ARE TOLD AMONG THE PEOPLE.

Terrible tales are told about the German inquisition, and one wonders really why the tormentors spend so

“culprit” a formal avowal, and, what is of still greater value to him, the denunciation of some “accomplices.” Every possible means is used for this purpose.

Some people have been deprived of food to compel them to speak, others have been beaten, others were told that their wife or their child was dying and that they would be allowed to see them if they confessed their crime. The examinations are kept up for hours in order to exhaust the strength of the accused, and when one examining officer is tired, another takes his place.

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I could not vouch for every one of these stories. Few of those who are supposed to have experienced such torture have come back to describe them. Enough is known to render these rumors plausible, so that the people live in dread of the German police and the German spies who infest

who, for some reason or another, finds himself on their black list.

CONFISCATED COPIES OF "LIBRE BELGIQUE" CAUSE MANY ARRESTS.

Their work was rendered more easy by the seizure of a certain number of copies of the newspaper, *Libre Belgique*. One of these thrown in the



AN INTERESTING GROUP

King Albert of the Belgians followed by General Dubois, President Poincaré, M. Millerand and General Joffre greeting military observers in France. He is speaking with Lieut.-Colonel Higoutchi of Japan. The remarkable physique of the monarch seems to dwarf the figures of the other chiefs, of whom several are of no mean stature. N. Y. Times

the country, especially in the large towns. They can be found everywhere, in the street, in the trams, in the cafés, in the churches, under any possible disguise. It is their business to find out who publishes and circulates forbidden papers, such as "*La Libre Belgique*," who brings news from the soldiers to their families, who helps volunteers to cross the wire, who entertains relations with the Belgian Government; and when their quest remains fruitless, as it often does, to convict of such crime any good patriot

letter-box of any suspect or slipped into a drawer could serve as a pretext for his immediate arrest. A well-dressed man called on the principal of one of the most important schools in Brussels. He told this priest that the school had been highly recommended to him, and that he wanted his two boys to be educated there. He insisted on paying beforehand the fee for the first term, and slipped, as he left, a banknote in the principal's hand, whispering in his ear, "For the '*Libre Belgique*,' you know," and disappear-

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ed, after saying that he would bring his boys the next day.

Something in the man's behavior made the priest suspicious, and he promptly sent the banknote to the office of "La Belgique," one of the German censored papers subsidized by the "Politische Abtheilung," asking for a receipt. The next day the German agent reappeared, escorted by two soldiers, and declared that it was his painful mission to arrest the principal, since, by accepting the money, he had admitted that he was connected with the publication of a forbidden paper. "Which paper?" asked the priest, showing great astonishment. "The 'Libre Belgique'."

"It is the first time that I hear the name," was the answer. "I thought you meant 'La Belgique.' The money has already been taken there. I am sorry I made this mistake, but perhaps there is still time to claim it. Here is the receipt if you care to go."

The patriot avoided thus a penalty of from ten to twenty years' imprisonment or deportation to Germany. But, for one who escapes, how many false victims of their confidence?—for the German military courts of Hasselt, Brussels, and Ghent may safely be compared with the "Bloody Council" of the Duke of Alva.

HOW THE BELGIANS SHOW THEIR ATTITUDE TOWARD THE GERMANS.

In the street, when obliged to pass before a "field-grey," the Brussels bourgeois will look in another direction, in the tram no lady will remain in the car if a German takes his seat beside her. There are Belgian and German cafés, Belgian and German shops, and, in the country, where such arrangements are not always possible, the intrusion of an enemy is invariably followed by dead silence, even orders being given by signs. On August 17, 1917, when a service for the birthday of the Austrian Emperor was celebrated

in Ste. Gudule, the great church was deserted, and when, three days later, the German Emperor crossed the town, only his soldiers and policemen were there to greet him. This complete ostracism may relax, to a certain extent, in small country towns and



PALAIS DE JUSTICE, BRUSSELS

This was used by the Germans as a barracks. Begun in 1866 and inaugurated in 1883 on the occasion of the fiftieth anniversary of Belgium's independence, it is pyramidal in shape and culminates in a dome with a cross.

villages, where only a few old and mournful men of the Landsturm form the whole garrison, but it is unmistakable and relentless in every town where even those patriots who speak to an enemy with the idea of getting some useful information from him live under a shadow.

The Germans sowed terror, thinking that they would reap the golden crop of submission, and lo! only thistles and nettles grow on the Belgian fields. And they wonder and ask themselves and every neutral they meet: "How is it? What have we done that we should be hated thus?"

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But, if the Germans wonder at their failure, they do not alter their methods. They know no other. They no longer publish the names of the patriots sentenced by their courts, since such practice only prompts others to follow their example. They have also ceased to bury the martyrs outside the prisons where people could come and pray on their graves and cover them with flowers, but they go on condemning them, deporting others and fining many more. According to their own admission, 100,000 sentences were pronounced in one year (1915-16), and this figure must be largely increased by now. The disproportion between the offence and the punishment is, perhaps, more suggestive of German terrorism than the most sensational stories of torture and wanton cruelty. Here are a few examples:

SOME EXAMPLES OF THE ATTEMPTS TO BREAK THE BELGIAN SPIRIT.

Parents are daily condemned to a penalty of three to six months' imprisonment and a fine of one thousand marks for "not having prevented their sons from crossing the frontier." Anybody who, verbally or otherwise, gives news from the soldiers to their relatives remaining in Belgium is heavily fined and deported to Germany. An official proclamation has been posted in Flanders declaring that anybody who should be taken carrying any weapon—even a pocket-knife—would be shot. A citizen of Hasselt was fined one thousand marks for closing his windows when the military band was playing in the market-place. The burgomaster of Mons, for refusing to stand at attention before the military governor of the town, had to pay 7,500 francs, etc.

It is scarcely necessary to recall here the deportation of M. Max the burgomaster of Brussels and of his successor M. Lemonier, whose crime had been to defend their constitutional rights; or that of Professors Pirenne and Fredericq, whose only offense was that of declining to help the Germans in the creation of the new University of Ghent. Under such trivial pretexts at least ten deputies and senators, fifteen

burgomasters and aldermen, eminent advocates and well-known doctors, have been banished from the country.

THE DEMAND THAT THE PEOPLE GIVE ACTIVE AID.

The imposition of collective fines on the communes has become a regular source of income for the German war-chest. Any incident may serve as a pretext to justify such measures—a telegraph-post thrown down by a gale, the successful escape of workmen or recruits, the appearance of an Allied aeroplane over the town, or a sympathetic demonstration towards British prisoners. In the summer of 1917 Mons had to pay 500,000 marks after a British air raid, under the pretext that it followed the announcement by a Belgian paper published in Holland that Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria had established his headquarters there. The small commune of Zele, near Termonde, was condemned to a fine of 100,000 marks because the inhabitants had distributed food and cigarettes to British prisoners. Malines was fined 20,000 marks because the local authorities had refused to clear up the wreckage caused by the bombardment of the town by the enemy.

The last example illustrates particularly well the German policy pursued in Belgium. It is not enough that the people should not do anything to help their country, they should also do everything to help Germany. It is not enough that they should refrain from any demonstration of sympathy towards their Allies, they should also exert themselves to further German aims. Malines should clear the ruins wrought by German guns, deportees should be employed on military work, professors should lend their name and reputation to the German University of Ghent, patriots be compelled to dig trenches and build concrete dug-outs to shelter German soldiers.

SOME INDIVIDUALS SUCCUMB TO THE TEMPTATION.

The tramp of soldiers has become especially loud in some Belgian towns. The Germans are not suppressing a rising. They are protecting a little band of traitors against the infuriated

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population whose patience is exhausted. For the stubborn hostility against the Boches however burning, cannot be compared to the fierce hatred of the people against the few "activists" who, with German help and German money, are endeavoring to break up Belgium. There is a traitor in the Belgian tragedy. It is a man who, before the war, was regarded as a failure while he

features of foreign oppression that it gives them a chance to satisfy their greed and their rancor. They may be seen in Belgium to-day lecturing to the empty benches of the Ghent University, filling the most responsible posts of the deserted Flemish Ministries, going in and out of the *Kommandantur* bent on some cloudy errand. Dressed in brand new frock coats, they wander



THE UNIVERSITY OF GHENT, REORGANIZED BY GERMAN AUTHORITY

considered himself a success. He belongs generally to the intellectual class. It is a college professor whose head has been turned by the prospect of a chair at Ghent, or a civil servant who could not resist the temptation offered by a directorship, or a doctor in search of patients, a singer without voice, a painter without talent, a poet without inspiration, or merely a debtor without any money—what the French call a "rate," a man who cannot forgive his country or his Government for the scant attention given to him in the past and who is ready to sell his soul for power, money, and a top-hat.

Such people exist in every country, and it is perhaps one of the worst

through the streets trying not to see the look of hatred which follows them everywhere and not to hear the ironic greeting "Traitor! Judas!" whispered by every passer-by.

HOW THE BELGIANS DEALT WITH THOSE WHO AIDED GERMANY.

The professors and students at Ghent, the new officials at the Flemish Ministry in Brussels, are outside the pale of society. These men were so few, and their propaganda had so little influence, that the patriots never took the trouble to attack them seriously. It seemed scarcely worth while. But the self-appointed "Council of Flanders" proclaimed the "Independence of Flanders" in January, 1918, and started

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a violent propaganda under German protection. In spite of the ridiculously small number of separatists (there are only a few hundred "activists" among the four million Flemings), this step might have proved dangerous in creating among the German people and even among Allied nations, the illusion that a certain part of the Belgian population wanted to dissociate themselves from the rest

WHEN THE BELGIAN JUDGES WENT ON A STRIKE.

In Brussels, a few days later, the Belgian Court of Appeal took the initiative of prosecuting the eleven signatories of a poster proclaiming the independence of Flanders. Two of them were duly arrested, on February 8th, and the judge was cross-examining them when a German major in full uniform rushed into the study of



GHENT, CAPITAL OF THE PROVINCE OF EAST FLANDERS

The city is intersected by a number of streams and canals spanned by more than 200 bridges. The older portion with its narrow streets and gabled buildings bears a decidedly Flemish aspect and possesses numerous buildings of great historical interest. Ghent has a number of old guild houses and about twenty monasteries. Ruschin

of the nation and to receive separate treatment at the peace conference. An "independent" Flanders meant evidently a German-protected Flanders. Though German statements have repeatedly assured us that they do not want to annex Belgium "violently," they might, later on, make the same answer to the Allies about Flanders as they did to the Bolsheviks concerning the Baltic provinces: "We do not care to annex an inch of territory, but we cannot decently refuse to protect large provinces, if the people there claim our protection."

M. Jottrand the public prosecutor with great clatter of sword and spurs, and, thumping the table with his fist, demanded the immediate release of the two activist leaders. M. Jottrand only consented to give the order of release when Major Schauer had given him a written document stating that he took all the responsibility for the illegal measure. And a few moments later the Belgians, assembled before the Palace of Justice, could see the German officer walking out, carrying the voluminous dossier under his arm, with one traitor on each side. I need scarcely add that

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the three presidents of the Court of Appeal were deported as "undesirable," after which all the Belgian magistrates decided to suspend their sittings.

Extraordinary country, where the patriotic judges go on strike hand in hand with the patriotic workmen, and where an archbishop and the members of the Supreme Court are counted among the foremost ringleaders!

The people are fed on substitutes when they are fed at all, terrorism is rampant, the whole country, with its wide, rolling plains and capricious hills, has become a huge prison; but laughter is not entirely dead. The Belgian's answer to the tramp of the soldiers is his laughter. Not bitter, defiant laughter, rather the broad, good-humored laughter of a man who



SALVAGING AND CLEARING IN THE HARBOR

An Antwerp diver ascertaining if a sunken ship could be raised. When the Belgians evacuated the city they sank their ships in the harbors—an action which cost the Germans many months of tiresome work, although incidentally it gave thereby great impetus to German salvaging industries, already very far advanced. Ruschin

THE PEOPLE HAVE NOT FORGOTTEN HOW TO LAUGH.

It is very difficult to give a trustworthy picture of Belgian life in the spring of 1918 without producing an impression of gloom. The situation of these seven million men, women, and children separated from their friends and relations in the Army or abroad, completely isolated from the rest of the world, left at the mercy of a victor who is exerting all his cunning in order to extract the last ounce of their energy, the last potato of their crop, the last shilling of their money, the last breath of their patriotism, is nothing short of desperate.

would rather be ruined or deported than give up a practical joke.

THE SPECTRE OF STARVATION NEVER OUT OF SIGHT.

"I shall never think of Belgium," writes Mrs. Kellogg, "without seeing endless processions of silent men and black-shawled women, pitchers in hand, waiting, waiting for the day's pint of soup. One and a quarter million make a long procession. If you have imagined it in the sunshine, think of it in the rain. A man may shut himself in his house and forget the war for a few hours, but he dare not venture outside. If he does, he will quickly stumble against a part of this line . . ."

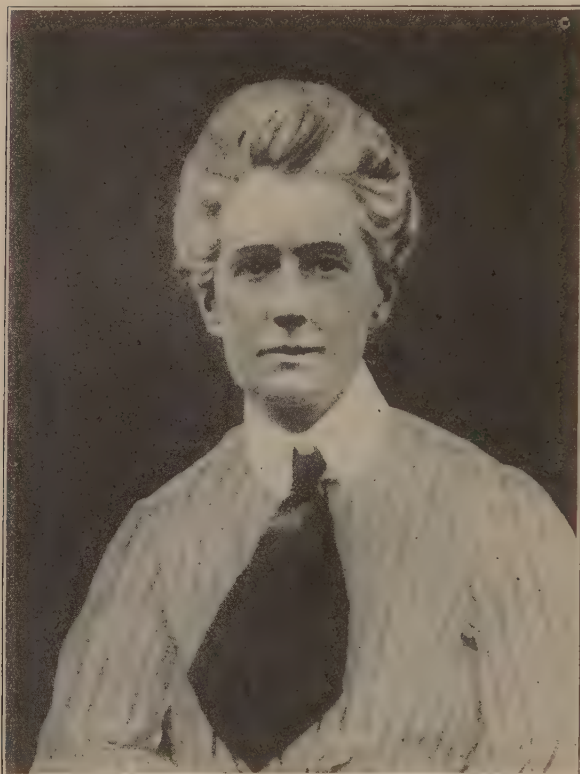
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The Belgian people may be roughly divided into three classes—those who are entirely dependent on relief, most industrial workers, small shopkeepers, and a certain portion of the professional classes who have been thrown out of work or entirely ruined by the war; those who are only partly de-

EMPLOYERS AND WORKMEN REFUSE TO WORK FOR GERMANY.

The Germans have failed to persuade the Belgians that the British blockade is in any shape or form responsible for the situation. This fallacy, propounded by the censored Press, has been repeatedly exposed by Cardinal Mercier and the local authorities who protested against the deportations. The people know that Britain allowed the import of foodstuffs under neutral control, and that, when these do not reach the country, as was the case in the summer of 1917, it is owing to the torpedoing of the relief ships by U-boats. They are also aware that, had Germany consented to submit to the same control regarding raw material, the Belgian workshops might have been kept busy, and a half a million men would not have been thrown out of work. It is not the blockade which reduces the Belgian workers of Mons, Charleroi, and Liège to the desperate conditions in which they find themselves today. It is not even the enormous requisitions in money, food, and raw stuffs made by the enemy. It is the stubborn and splendid patriotism which made these men refuse to work against their country. The Belgian civilians are starving today for the same reason for which they were massacred in August, 1914—because they stubbornly resist Germany's will.

Men and women from the Liège region, unable to support their families, tramp sometimes for days in Hesbaye or Flemish Limbourg in order to obtain food at the farms and they seldom come back empty-handed. Walloon children by the thousand are found as far as the Dutch frontier in places where they cannot make themselves understood. But the voice of heart does not need translating.



NURSE EDITH CAVELL, VICTIM OF GERMAN SAVAGERY

This woman whose life had been devoted to works of mercy was, by the order of Baron von Bissing, shot, after summary trial at Brussels on October 11, 1915, for helping British and Belgian fugitives across the Belgian frontier.

pendent on relief, including a number of the bourgeois class, whose income, though curtailed, allows them to pay the low prices of the "Comité National"; and those who are still entirely self-supporting, including the farmers, some merchants, and the owners of landed property. Out of the seven million people remaining in Belgium about four million are entirely or partly dependent on the work of the Commission for Relief.

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THE GAY TOWN LIFE NO LONGER EVIDENT.

Those who knew Brussels before the war, the gay city with its noisy streets, loud-speaking crowd, and comfortable life, would be staggered if they could wander to-day about the deserted and

must drag their cars along, and it is a painful sight to see these weak men in harness struggling to climb the steep streets. Another remarkable feature, in a town where no household was complete without some pet animal, cats and dogs are quickly disappearing.



GERMAN OFFICER PURCHASING FOOD IN BELGIUM

Elderly officer buying vegetables from Belgian peasant's humble stall in the market place. Such products could not be hoarded for the Belgians themselves, nor concealed from the vigilant Germans whose military governors were wont, if they suspected such deception, to commandeered the whole crop. Roots are largely grown in the heavy soil of the Low Countries. Ruschin

silent thoroughfares of the upper part of the town. But for the few cars used by the *Kommandantur* and the "Comité National," no motors are to be seen; cycles have vanished; unemployment has considerably decreased the pedestrian traffic. The tramways, on the other hand, are very active. They are the principal means of transport for public services, all heavy material being conveyed in small open trucks along the line. Even burials take place in that way, the coffin being placed in the first carriage, and the family and friends sitting in the second. A few months ago a few oxen, donkeys, and old horses were still employed by private firms. Now they are seldom to be seen. The dustmen, for instance,

No regulations have yet been made in Brussels, as in Ghent, for instance, about the slaughtering of dogs, but such regulations have become useless. There will soon be no dogs left.

THE SOUND OF WOODEN SHOES ON THE PAVEMENTS.

If there are few passers-by, they can be heard approaching from afar, owing to the wooden soles which replace the old leather ones when these are worn out. Many poor people walk in wooden shoes, and even some policemen are seen wearing this rustic footgear. The women do wonders to look neat and smart, and they succeed to a certain extent. Only their intimate friends know that their new dress is the third edition, modified and converted, of an

*and are still fighting for
the common cause of human
liberty so dear to every
American woman's heart*

Elisabeth

THE CLOSE OF A LETTER FROM THE QUEEN OF THE BELGIANS

old pre-war "toilette," and they do not easily confess that their best coat has been made out of an extra blanket. Owing to the requisitions, wool, cloth, and even linen have become so valuable that, in some cases, robbers have taken away the clothes of their victims, reviving the custom of the old highwaymen.

The enemy has seized every kind of brass in the cafés, tramcars, and public buildings, and even in private houses. All the brilliant copper fittings are replaced by dull iron. The shine has gone from the gay city. After the scarcity of food, this want of brightness and spotless cleanliness is perhaps the severest trial of the Brussels housewife. It was the great luxury of the poor in Belgium. Water is still plentiful—it is perhaps the only thing which has not been affected by the war—but a small piece of soap is worth four shillings.

THE "BUSY BEES" STRIVE TO SAVE THE CHILDREN.

And still through frost and snow, through wind and showers, unexpectedly the queues of "silent men and black-shawled women, pitchers in hand," bar the way, and the wanderer realizes that out of 750,000 people who live in Brussels, from 200,000 to 250,000 are destitute. Besides these grown-ups who wait before the "soupes" there are crowds of children who gather

at 11 o'clock before the canteens for subnormal children, to take the extra meal provided by the "Petites Abeilles," the private association known in Brussels as the "Little Bees." Twenty-six thousand children are fed by 2,000 to 3,000 women of all classes who have volunteered for this work since the beginning of the occupation and looked after by one hundred and twenty-five physicians who give their services.

The "Little Bees" are all volunteers. They receive a subsidy from the Commission for Relief, and go from door to door to collect alms. They gather in this way, in Brussels alone, \$500 a week besides gifts in food, and bring their honey back to the hive. Their popularity in the town has grown tremendously, and it is believed that it is owing to their untiring efforts that the mortality among children has been kept within bounds.

MRS. KELLOGG TELLS OF THE CHILDREN SHE SAW IN BRUSSELS.

Queen Elisabeth was the promoter and the patroness of the association before the war. But, in spite of the absence of their Queen, engaged in sterner duty on the Yser front, the workers have remained faithful to their post, and will be able, when the time comes, to render a glorious account of themselves. This is how Mrs. Kellogg describes the rush of youngsters in the canteen:

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"It was raining outside, but all was white and clean and inviting within. Suddenly there was a rush of feet in the courtyard below. I looked out of the window; in the rain 1,662 children between three and fourteen years, mothers often leading the smaller ones, not an umbrella or rubber among them, were lining up with their cards, eager to be passed by the sergeant.

'Beaucoup, mademoiselle, beaucoup!' A few even said, 'Only a little, mademoiselle!' Everybody said something. One tiny, golden-haired thing pleaded, 'You know, I like the little pieces of meat best.' In no time they discovered that I was new, and tried to induce me to give them extra slices of bread or bowls of milk."

Though they bear other names in



BRUGES "THE SLEEPING TOWN"

Bruges has preserved to this day its mediaeval aspect. The old houses and beautiful Gothic churches, narrow canals bridge-adorned, all bear the stamp of rare beauty and quaintness. Once the entire wool trade of Flanders was in the hands of the citizens of Bruges and the town was, moreover, the seat of a brilliant cosmopolitan colony of artists. Zeebrugge, connected by a canal is the port of Bruges.

These kind-hearted, long-suffering sergeants kept this wavering line in place, as the children noisily climbed the long stairway, calling, pushing. One little girl stepped out to put fresh flowers before a bust of the Queen. Boys and girls under six crowded into the first of the large airy rooms, older girls into the second, while the bigger boys climbed to the floor above. With much chattering and shuffling of sabots they slid along the low benches to their places at the long narrow tables. The women hurried between the wriggling rows, ladling out the hot, thick soup. The air was filled with cries of,

other towns, there are "Little Bees" all over the country looking after 253,000 subnormal children, and fighting hard to protect the little ones against tuberculosis and other diseases which are the direct result of the food crisis.

THE ATTEMPTS OF THE BELGIANS TO HELP THEMSELVES.

It is almost impossible to give an idea of the efforts made in Belgium to preserve the race and alleviate suffering. The school children (there are 1,200,000 of them) receive an extra meal at 4 P. M., given them by the schoolmasters and schoolmistresses. The "Drop of

Milk" cares for expectant mothers, and has 53,000 babies under supervision. The Clothing Relief provides several hundred thousand garments, besides giving a few hours' employment a week to 25,000 seamstresses, in Brussels alone. The lace industry—the only industry whose exports are allowed—keeps 48,000 workers busy. The "Restaurants Economiques" provide over 10,000 cheap meals a day in Brussels to the many "Pauvres honteux," who would rather endure severe privations than be seen in the soup queues.

All these foundations are subsidized by the communes and the Commission for Relief, and none of them could work for more than a month without the help of volunteers and the constant flow of private subscriptions. Mr. Hoover speaks of an army of 55,000 volunteer workers on relief that has grown among the Belgian and French people, "of a perfection and a patriotism without parallel in the existence of any country." It is "to the growth of the relief organization, and the demand it has made upon the people's exertions and their devotion, that its *morale* has flowered in such a fine national spirit and stoical resolution."

THE BELGIAN ARMY AND THE BELGIAN PEOPLE.

The Belgians have refused to work for Germany, but they are working for Belgium harder than ever; some of them are so engrossed in this new undertaking that they have no time to weep over the past. Their sight must clear like that of the pilot of the ship, for there is danger ahead. Never has there been so little money in the

country, and never have so many charities flourished.

The Army is worshipped. In many homes the picture of the absent soldier occupies the place of honor in the living room, and is surrounded with small household treasures. Tapers are kept burning before these shrines during the winter nights, and they are surrounded with flowers in summer. The soldiers' children and the orphans are the object of solicitude of hundreds of associations, such as the "Secours des Enfants de nos Braves," the "Obole Populaire," the "Friends of our Soldiers' Children," the "Orphan's Flower," and the prisoners in Germany are not forgotten by "L'Adoption," the "Comité du Soldat Belge Prisonnier," while the disabled are looked after by "La Fraternelle des Soldats Mutilés."

LAUGHING AT THEIR MISERY ENABLES THEM TO ENDURE IT.

"The great characteristic of the Belgian people," writes Mr. J. G. Blicke, in the *Amsterdammer* after spending two years in the occupied provinces, "is the unconquerable strength of their living spirit, this spirit which remains silent because obliged to do so, but remains untamed, which laughs because inclined to do so and because it knows. Yes, even in the present circumstances, the spirit of Belgium laughs! It laughs at the incongruities of life, mocking the warrior's sword, mocking its own misery. But laughter means victory; and it is precisely because Belgium began again to laugh so soon, and has never ceased to laugh since, that she will conquer. She does not even resist the evil spirit, because it has no hold upon her.



A British Machine Gunner

CHAPTER LXI

The German Offensive of March and April

LUDENDORFF ATTEMPTS TO GAIN PEACE BY SEPARATING THE FRENCH AND BRITISH ARMIES

DURING the winter of 1917-1918 there was much speculation as to whether the Germans would venture to attack in force on the Western Front in the following spring. The collapse of the Russian front had by this time enabled them to transfer to the West vast numbers of fresh troops and a great quantity of war material—with the result that in strength they were now considerably superior. On the other hand, there were those—some of them high up in the Allied councils—who, remembering the failure of the Allies to break through in 1916 and 1917, believed that the deadlock on the Western Front was unbreakable, and that the Germans would not dare to attack. Even among the soldiers, there were many who regarded the prospect of a German offensive as too good to be true, and who believed that the Germans would continue their stone-walling tactics rather than venture on the project of a grand offensive.

THE SITUATION AT HOME FORCED THE GERMANS TO FIGHT.

These latter views, however, were based on a false estimate of the situation. The position of the Central Powers, though temporarily favorable, was rapidly becoming critical. Austria, Bulgaria, and Turkey could not be expected to continue the struggle indefinitely; and even in Germany in-

ternal conditions were steadily growing worse. The submarine warfare, moreover, had failed to yield the results which had been promised from it; and it was clear that the intervention of the United States in the European theatre would soon become a serious factor. Obviously, it was the part of wisdom for the Germans to make the fullest use of their temporary superiority. If the British and French armies could be decisively defeated before the Americans could come to their relief, the war would be virtually won; for it was not expected that the United States, separated from the field of conflict by thousands of miles of sea, would continue the struggle single-handed.

LUDENDORFF PROMISES VICTORY WITHIN FOUR MONTHS.

Everything hinged on whether, in the next round of the bout, the German army could administer to the combined British and French armies a knock-out blow; and it would appear that early in the winter Ludendorff, who—under the nominal leadership of the popular idol, Hindenburg—was the master-mind of the German army, had already come to the conclusion that such an achievement was feasible. At a secret session of the German Reichstag, held in February, 1918, Ludendorff appeared in person, and

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after outlining his proposals, guaranteed the German people a victorious peace within four months, if his proposals were adopted. He frankly estimated the probable German losses at an appalling figure; but the Reichstag intoxicated with the prospect of victory at last, gave his project their blessing.



GEN. SIR WILLIAM ROBERTSON, CHIEF
OF IMPERIAL STAFF

GENERAL LUDENDORFF'S PLAN TO GAIN A VICTORIOUS PEACE.

Ludendorff's plan bore witness to the power and originality of his narrow but efficient mind. It was a definite and revolutionary attempt to find a fresh solution for the stalemate which had been brought about by the war of positions. In the battles of the preceding years it had been deemed essential to prepare the way for an infantry assault by a prolonged bombardment—with the result that the element of surprise was lost, the enemy got plenty of time and warning to get his reserves

up, and the attack was not able to progress far. The bombardment was likely, also, to make the ground impassable for the artillery and supply services as the attack swept forward.

The problem had been partially solved by the British in their tank attack near Cambrai in November, 1917, where the prolonged artillery bombardment had been dispensed with, and a complete surprise had been obtained. Ludendorff did not have a sufficient number of tanks to enable him to copy the British tactics, nor does he appear at this stage to have thought highly of the tanks as an instrument of warfare; but he was profoundly impressed with the success of the British in restoring the element of surprise to the battle.

THE NEW GERMAN PLAN OF ATTACK TO BE TRIED ON A LARGE SCALE.

He could not, of course, hope to obtain a complete surprise; but he conceived that it would be at least possible to deceive the enemy as to the point at which his main blow was to fall. His idea was to effect his concentrations far behind the front line, where they would threaten several different sectors of the enemy's front; to hurry his troops forward to the assembly positions under cover of night, by every means of transportation at his disposal; to attack, after a brief but violent bombardment, in overwhelming strength at certain critical points, and thus to effect a break-through before the enemy could readjust himself to meet the sudden blow. The actual assault was to be carried out by specially trained storm-troops, who were to press forward at all costs through any gaps that appeared, and were to indicate by a carefully prepared system of signals the lines of least resistance to be followed by the dense waves of infantry, cavalry, and artillery attacking in their wake. All troops were to be furnished with several days' iron rations, and were to push on to the limit of their endurance, when they would be "leap-frogged" by fresher formations. These

tactics had been used by General von Hutier in the East, and later at Caporetto on a limited scale.

After a personal inspection of the front, Ludendorff selected the sector on which his attack was to be made. This sector was the southern half of the British line, extending from north of Cambrai to south of St. Quentin, and coinciding with the areas held by the British Third and Fifth Armies. It was intended, however, that the main blow should fall on the British Fifth Army, at the extreme right of the British line; and the object of this blow was to separate the British and French armies, so that it would be possible to isolate the British from French assistance, to roll the British armies back on the Channel ports and destroy them; then to turn south and roll up the French line. It was an astute attempt to put into twentieth-century practice Napoleon's device of separating his enemies and defeating them in succession.

HOW NEAR TO SUCCESS DID LUDENDORFF COME?

Just how far this plan fell short of success is a question which will probably be debated in Germany for many years to come. Certainly it did not fall far short. Ludendorff's concentration of his troops left the Allies in the dark as to where his main blow was to fall; and the preparations which they made to meet it were hopelessly astray. The French commander-in-chief, General Pétain, was convinced that Ludendorff was going to attack in Champagne; and, in order that he might strengthen his line, he induced the British to take over an additional thirty miles of front in the neighborhood of St. Quentin—the very spot where the German drive was to take place. This arrangement produced a dangerous extension of the British line; for Sir Douglas Haig, owing to the failure of the British Government to support the Western Front



THE INTERIOR OF ST. GERVAIS

Interior of the Paris Church of St. Gervais, hit by a shell during the long-range bombardment of the capital on Good Friday, 1918. One hundred and fifty worshippers were victims of this attack.

with adequate reinforcements, had actually at his disposal at the very least 100,000 fewer fighting troops than he had had a year before, when he had occupied a shorter front.

Had General Haig known beforehand where Ludendorff was going to strike, he might still have been able to counter the blow; but failing this knowledge, he had no choice but to mass his reserves behind what seemed the most vulnerable places in his line—that is to say, in the north, protecting the Channel ports, where he was not able, without disaster, to give much ground. Consequently, the southern part of the British line was very lightly held. The Fifth British Army, which lay directly across the path of the main German drive, and which was composed of only fourteen infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions, all considerably below strength, had to defend a front of over forty miles.

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THE REASONS WHY THE FIFTH ARMY BROKE DOWN.

The breakdown of the Fifth Army in the battle that followed has given rise to so much harsh criticism that it may be worth while, for the sake of justice, to explain in some detail the situation on the Fifth Army front. The greater part of this sector had been taken over by the British only in

and a rear zone, several thousand yards apart; he had even begun defensive works as far back as the crossings of the Somme and he had done his best to improve communications by repairing the roads, building light railways, establishing dumps, and so forth. But the number of men at his disposal was limited—so limited that he had to content himself with defending parts of



A SYMBOL IN SILHOUETTE

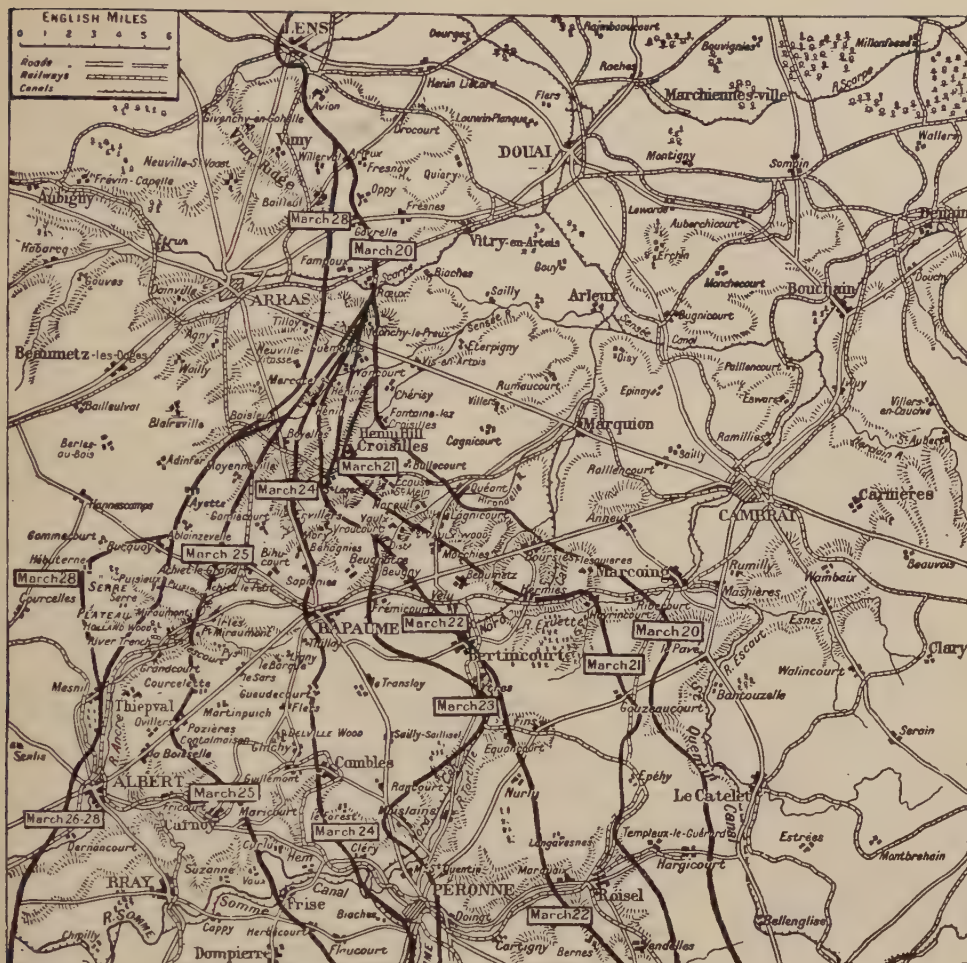
An Anzac sentry on guard for the Empire somewhere in France. The Odyssey of the Anzacs was perhaps written on the tortured cliffs and burning sands of Gallipoli, but their gallantry upon the fields of Western Europe, in Palestine and in Mesopotamia marks a fair page in the annals of the Empire.

British Official

the latter part of January, 1918, and its defenses were in a sketchy condition. Being partially protected by the marshes of the Oise valley it had not been strongly held by the French. The country behind it, moreover, was the devastated area over which the Germans had passed in their retreat to the Hindenburg line the year before, and was seriously deficient in adequate facilities for communication and transportation. Sir Hubert Gough, the commander of the Fifth Army, had, on taking over the front, immediately set himself to improving its defenses. He had organized three separate defensive zones, an outpost zone, a battle zone

his line by means of a series of disconnected posts; and, when the storm broke, his preparations were still far from completion. To make matters worse, the early spring of 1918 was phenomenally dry; and the marshes of the Oise valley dried up, with the result that the Germans were able to make their way across them in much larger numbers than had been thought possible. Seldom in truth have troops found themselves, through no fault of their own, in a less enviable position than did the attenuated units of Gough's devoted army as the fateful end of March, 1918, which was to bring unexpected disaster, drew nigh.

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WHERE THE GERMAN BLOW FELL IN MARCH

THE THUNDER-BOLT IS LAUNCHED UPON THE BRITISH LINE.

Up to the last minute, the British General Staff were under the impression that the main German blow was going to fall on the British Third Army; whereas, as the battle unfolded, it was found to have fallen on the Fifth Army. Against the fifteen divisions of the Third Army, under Sir Julian Byng, Ludendorff threw twenty-four divisions from Otto von Below's Seventeenth Army and von der Marwitz's Second Army; but against the fourteen infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions of Gough's Fifth Army, he threw no less than forty divisions, including the whole of von Hutier's

Eighteenth Army and the great part of von der Marwitz's Second Army. Before the end of the fighting nine more divisions were used, seventy-three in all. The importance of the southern part of the attack was further emphasized by the fact that, whereas the northern part was made by troops in the Army Group of Rupprecht of Bavaria, von Hutier's Army was in the Army Group of the German Crown Prince. Once the attack was under way, it was announced that the Kaiser was in supreme command.

The thunder-bolt was launched on the morning of March 21. At 4 A. M. the German guns opened up a terrific bombardment of gas and high explosive

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shells, not only along the front of the British Third and Fifth Armies, but on many other parts of the front, both British and French. Dunkirk even was bombarded. More shells were used than in the entire Franco-Prussian war. Then, as the morning wore on, the infantry attack developed on a sixty-mile front from north of the River Sensée to south of the River Oise. In one place it began as early as 8 A. M. and it was general by 10 A. M. It did not fall on all parts of the line with equal force: some places, such as the face of the salient opposite Cambrai, were hardly attacked at all, and units fighting side by side found themselves subjected to very different degrees of pressure. It was only at certain points that the attack was pressed with especial violence; and here, indeed, it was all but irresistible.

THE WEATHER CONDITIONS FAVORABLE TO THE GERMANS.

As luck would have it, the weather conditions were particularly favorable for the attack. The morning of March 21 broke with the front wrapped in one of those dense fogs for which the winter of northern France has become famous. This meant that, in the damp and heavy air, the fumes of the German gas shells hung long and low on the ground; and it made next to impossible any effective counter-battery work on the part of the British artillery. When the infantry attack developed, the fog prevented the British from seeing their assailants until they were only a few yards away, and so rendered abortive the carefully devised scheme of defense which the British had evolved. The idea underlying the British defenses was that the outpost line should serve to break up the cohesion of the German attack, and that the battle zone, which was composed of a series of redoubts and strong points manned by machine-guns sweeping the approaches with transverse fire, should bring the attack to a standstill. What actually happened was that the troops in the outpost line were in many cases overwhelmed almost before they were aware that the Germans were upon them; and the machine-guns and artillery in the battle

zone were robbed of their targets by the fog until it was almost too late. Nature had provided the Germans with a "smoke-screen" more effectual than any that artificial means could have devised.

It should not be imagined, however, that there was at first anything in the nature of a *débâcle*. Though the outpost line was almost everywhere overrun, and several deep dents were made in the battle zone, the rear zone was at the end of the day everywhere intact. Nor, in view of the facts, can the British resistance be described as other than heroic. Over the fate of many of the advance posts a silence reigns more eloquent than words; but we know that in others the defenders held out long after the advancing German hordes had swept past them. A typical illustration of the fate of these redoubts may be found in the story of Manchester Hill, opposite St. Quentin, which was held by the 16th Manchesters. The colonel of the Manchesters, Elstob, had issued instructions that "The Manchesters will defend Manchester Hill to the last;" and the battalion lived and died true to its orders.

THE MEN IN THE ADVANCE POSTS FIGHT TO THE END.

In some localities rifle-fire was heard about the advance posts as late as midnight; and indeed in most cases the forward troops fought until they could fight no more. Though fighting against hopeless odds, they served to absorb the shock of the first German onslaught, and thus slowed up the German advance. It is significant that nowhere on the first day did the German attack reach such a depth as was reached, for example, by the later assault of the Canadians and Australians opposite Amiens on August 8. Its maximum depth of penetration was about 8,000 yards at the extreme south of the British line; and the average depth was probably not more than half of that distance.

Had the British had even a normal supply of reserves, especially on the Fifth Army front to the south, it is probable that they might have made

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good their line of resistance on the following day. In reserves, however, they were woefully deficient. Practically all of the very slender reserves of the Fifth Army had been drawn into the fight on March 21; and in view of the progress which the Germans had made, it was deemed necessary to withdraw the right wing of the Fifth Army behind the Crozat Canal. At the same

ally "masked." Nevertheless, practically the whole front of Byng's Third Army held firm; and the thin-strung line along the Crozat Canal in the south opposed a most stubborn resistance to the German advance. It was in the centre of the Fifth Army, opposite St. Quentin, that the break occurred. This appears to have been the point at which the Germans launched



SHELTERED PIGEON HOUSE AT THE FRONT

With the declaration of war the liaison units mobilize and establish their various stations to which their carrier pigeons resort bringing the messages entrusted to them. Reserve birds, sent to the front in baskets, are held in the first line whence they can be dispatched to maintain the communications with the rear.

time, certain rectifications of the line were made farther north, especially at the salient opposite Cambrai, which had been heavily attacked at both re-entrants. These operations were carried out during the night of March 21-22, with practically no interference from the enemy.

THE GERMANS' BREAK THROUGH OPPOSITE ST. QUENTIN.

On the morning of March 22, however, the Germans renewed their attack with great violence. The morning was again thick with mist, and once more the fire of the British guns, rifles and machine-guns was effect-

the spearhead of their attack. Under the weight of the troops which Ludendorff here poured into the battle, the British, fighting fiercely and continuously, were gradually forced back out of the battle zone and into the third or rear defensive zone. On this line they made a last desperate stand; but the omens were against them. In the neighborhood of the little Omignon River, the Germans found a gap between two British divisions; into this gap they poured large numbers of troops, and thus succeeded in effecting the definite break-through which they had in view. Since there were no

further reserves within call to be used in stopping the gap, the Fifth Army commander had now no choice but to order a withdrawal to the bridgehead positions which he had begun east of the Somme near Péronne. This he did just before midnight on March 22.

THE WITHDRAWAL OF THE FIFTH ARMY TO THE SOMME.

To carry out a retirement under constant pressure from the enemy is one of the most difficult operations in warfare; and it is especially difficult with

Armies in the neighborhood of the River Tortille in the north, a most critical situation developed as a result of these dislocations.

In view of these facts, and in view also of reports received from the Air Force that the German front for miles back was black with advancing German troops, General Gough decided at the last minute not to attempt to make a stand on the east of the Somme, but to retire forthwith to the west bank. He felt, and perhaps rightly, that to



THE SOUTHERN PART OF THE BATTLE

troops which, like the British, were accustomed mainly to trench routine, and which had not been trained, as the German storm-troops had been, in the tactics of open fighting. As the British Fifth Army fell back toward the Somme, and the right wing of the Third Army swung back to conform with this movement, there was an almost inevitable dislocation of the front, and dangerous gaps appeared at certain points in the line. Into these gaps the Germans felt their way with an unerring instinct, and thus in some cases got in rear of the retiring British. Especially at Ham in the south and between the wings of the Third and Fifth

ask his tired troops to hold the bridgehead positions against the overwhelming forces opposed to them would be to invite disaster. In retiring over the river so precipitately, he of course greatly shortened the time available for evacuating the east bank of the river, with the result that great quantities of materials had to be abandoned to the enemy. But once his troops had the river in front of them, they were able to rally, and oppose a fairly effective resistance to the German advance. Night fell on March 23 with the Germans pressing hard upon the river line north of Ham; and even on March 24, when the Germans

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succeeded in forcing the river crossings south of Épenancourt, the rest of the line held firm.

BACK AGAIN UPON THE OLD SOMME BATTLEFIELDS.

Meanwhile, the front continued in movement both to the south and to the north. In the south, where the French reserves were already coming up in an attempt to staunch the ever-growing breach created as the British fell back westward, the Germans were striving to exploit their opportunities

sector were on the point of disintegration. By March 24 the Germans were already on the edge of the Somme battlefield, well to the rear flank of the British troops along the Somme south of the bend at Péronne. On March 25 they swept across the old battlefields, capturing Courcellette, Pozières, Thiéval, and many another place which it had cost the British untold blood and agony to wring from them a year and a half before; and by March 26 they were knocking at the gates of Albert itself.



BACK TO THE BASE

British wounded bound for dressing station and hospital base on light railway. Beside the track runs a duckboard along which painfully stumble the walking casualties. The severity of the weather of the spring of 1918 added materially to the suffering of the troops. The devotion of the ambulance men was a bright spot in war's dark annals.

to the utmost. Having carried the line of the Crozat Canal, they were pushing forward, and by nightfall on March 24 they had captured Chaunoy and were half-way along the road from Ham to Noyon.

In the north, a still more serious retreat was under way. The Germans, profiting to the full from the gap that they had found between the Third and Fifth Armies, were hustling the British back toward the old Somme battlefields of 1916. In the repeated retirements and readjustments of the line, divisions, brigades, and battalions lost touch with one another; and it seemed for a time as if the British line in this

By this time, however, British reinforcements were coming into line from farther north; and the ferocity of the German blow was spending itself. The German troops, after nearly a week of constant marching and fighting, were reaching the point of exhaustion; and the German transport was beginning to break down under the strain. On March 27 the Germans succeeded in capturing Albert—a town which had never before been in their hands; but this success was the highwater mark of their advance on this front. By March 28 they had everywhere been brought to a standstill along the line of the Ancre.

THE RETREAT OF THE FIFTH ARMY SOUTH OF THE SOMME.

The rapid retreat of the Third Army and the left wing of the Fifth Army north of the Somme naturally rendered necessary repeated withdrawals of that part of the Fifth Army south of the Somme. These would no doubt have been necessary in any case; but they were rendered more difficult owing to



BRIG. GEN. SANDEMAN-CAREY

the fact that the British to the south of the Somme were a day behind those to the north in their retirement, and their left flank was therefore continually in the air. The most serious consequences of this situation were seen on March 26. On this date the British south of the Somme had taken up a position about twenty miles east of Amiens, where, despite their exhausted condition, and their poverty in reserves, they were prepared to make a desperate stand; but to the north of the river at Bray-sur-Somme, the local British commander, owing to a misconception of his orders, had already withdrawn several miles farther west, and the Germans were able to

cross the river and put themselves between the British and Amiens. Under these circumstances, there was nothing for the British to do but to retire again, which they did with such difficulty that the road to Amiens seemed open. Fortunately, General Gough had already arranged for the manning of the old Amiens defense line, from Marcelcave to the Somme, by a mixed force of details, stragglers, schools personnel, American engineers and Canadian railway troops, tunneling companies, laborers, cooks, and what not, under General Carey; and "Mother Carey's chickens," as this new Falstaff's army designated themselves, stopped the breach. By March 28 the remnants of the Fifth Army south of the Somme had fallen back into alignment with them; and here, for the time being, the German advance was stayed.

BOTH SIDES WEARIED TO THE POINT OF EXHAUSTION.

During the week that followed, the Germans made repeated attempts, both before Amiens and north of the Somme, to prevent the British from stabilizing their line, and here and there local advances were made by them. But their offensive had lost its momentum. British airmen, who watched the last phase of the struggle from above, have described how, by this time, the infantry on both sides were so exhausted that, save in an emergency, they lay for hours opposite each other without firing. Thin as was the line that barred the approaches to Amiens, it now held; and March 28 may be regarded as closing the first phase of the German offensive in this quarter.

General Gough was just now sent to take charge of the defenses of Amiens, while General H. S. Rawlinson was given command of whatever British forces remained south of the Somme, as the Fifth Army could hardly be said longer to exist.

In the south, meanwhile, the Germans had been making notable progress. On March 25 they captured Nesle and Noyon; on March 26 they passed through Roye; and thence they struck south-west toward Montdidier,

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in the double hope of interfering with the detraining of the French reinforcements at that point, and of finally separating the French and British Armies. In this they were almost successful, for on March 27 they captured Montdidier, in spite of General Fayolle's Frenchmen now coming up, and the Paris-Amiens railway came under the long-distance fire of the

to hold fast on the Bray-Albert line north of the Somme and General Fayolle, in charge of the French Reserve Group, was ordered to hold in the south. Though the Germans took Montdidier, they were not able to advance further. They succeeded during March 28 in progressing slightly on both sides of Montdidier; but by nightfall their progress had been stayed,



BRITISH GUNNER COPYING INSTRUCTIONS

Under camouflage alongside a big gun, a British gunner sits copying instructions. All "registrations," i. e. hits made upon a target, are carefully noted by the gunner for future reference. In this way a battery may turn upon a certain target within a few seconds by placing the "registered" angles and elevations upon the guns.

British Official

German guns. But by this time, now that it was clear that the whole weight of the German offensive was being thrown against the line held by the British, the French reserves were coming rapidly into the field.

On March 26 at a conference of Allied statesmen and generals at Doullens, behind the battle-front, General Foch had been appointed to "coordinate" the Allied forces in France; and already his influence began to be felt. With all the rare genius at his command, he accelerated the movement of the French reserves to the point of danger. General Haig agreed

and the German offensive here, as well as farther north, had shot its bolt.

LUDENDORFF NEXT SHIFTS TO AN ATTACK ON ARRAS.

Ludendorff, however, though he had been held up in his attempt to capture Amiens and drive a wedge between the French and British Armies, still had another string to his bow. The hinge on which the British Third and Fifth Armies had swung back in their retreat was Arras; and Ludendorff conceived that if he could smash in this hinge he would renew the rearward movement of the British, and so would be able to achieve his object by a roundabout

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route. He was nervous also about his left flank, where the French reserves were now appearing in ever-increasing numbers; and he could not allow the initiative to pass to the Allies. Consequently, on the morning of March 28—the day on which his advance in the valley of the Somme was reaching its

fense which the British had evolved was calculated to repel the most determined assaults. As the German storm-troops took up their assembly positions, they were in several places observed by the British artillery, and the severest punishment was inflicted on them; and when, after the usual



FIRST SNOWFALL IN FLANDERS

With its covering of freshly-fallen snow this stretch of Flemish fields scarcely suggests that it was near the battleground of the Western Front, in that small tract of the Belgian kingdom that was kept free from the ruthless invader. The scene with its rows of pollarded willows, distant farm buildings and cultivated ground showing through the covering of snow, suggests rather a typically peaceful countryside.

limit—he launched a powerful attack on the British defenses in front of Arras and Vimy Ridge.

The Germans employed in this attack the same methods as they had used on March 21; and had they achieved a similar success the results must have been grave indeed. But, fortunately for the defense, the weather conditions were very different on March 28 from what they had been on the earlier date. There was no fog; and it was demonstrated that, under normal conditions, the scheme of de-

preliminary bombardment, the attack was launched, the British outpost line proved quite sufficient to break up its cohesion. The Germans advanced only to be mowed down by the transverse fire of the British machine-guns, by the point-blank fire of the British field artillery, and, in some cases, by the fire of the surviving garrisons of the outpost line, who faced about and poured round after round into their flank and rear. The result was that the attack withered away, and the day ended with the British battle zone everywhere

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intact. So decisive was the repulse that, apart from a second and equally disastrous attack on part of the line on the afternoon of March 28, the Germans made no further attempt to advance on this front. Ludendorff's campaign up to this time had failed in spite of the ground he had won. He had made a gap, but it had been closed up. He was left with a salient too narrow for comfort.

order to find reserves to throw into the battle of the Somme, had drawn heavily on the northern part of his line, and had only partially replaced the troops he had withdrawn by exhausted divisions hastily reconstituted with reinforcements from England. Believing that the British weakness in the north now offered greater prospects of success, he reverted to it, and on April 9 launched an offensive on the



POSITION OF GERMAN LONG RANGE GUNS THAT BOMBARDED PARIS

General view of the country near Crépy-en-Laonnois where the Germans sited the "Big Berthas" with which, from a distance of about seventy-four miles they began the deliberate bombardment of the French capital on March 23, 1918. The positions of the guns—marked 1, 2, and 3 in the middle of the drawing—were discovered by French airmen, from whose data the drawing on this page was made.

THE BATTLE OF THE LYS BEGINS TEN DAYS LATER.

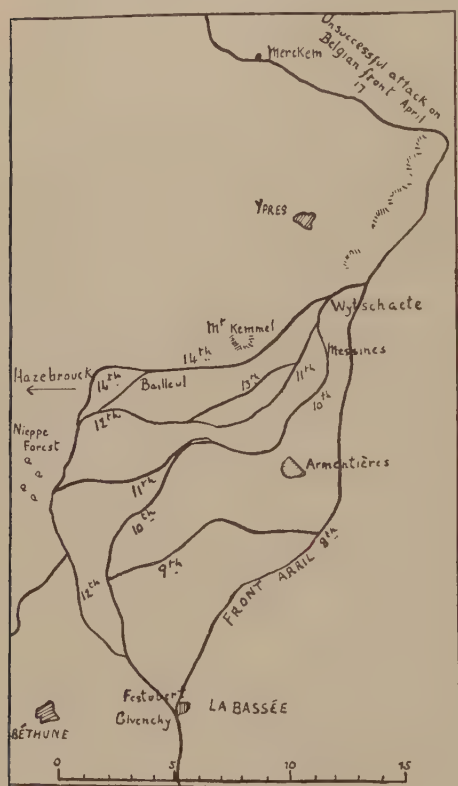
Ludendorff, however, had imposed on himself an offensive policy, and he could not afford to sit still. Time was required to reorganize his much-tried troops on the southern part of the battleline; but he still had about twenty fresh divisions left from the original mass of manœuvre which he had built up, and he now decided to employ these in an attack on the British line between Lens and Armentières, in the hope that he might drive the British here back on the Channel ports. He had considered such an attack when he was forming his plans in the winter, but had rejected it. Now, however, he was aware that Haig, in

Lens-Armentières sector which for a time appeared to be no less dangerous a menace to the safety of the British army in France than the drive toward Amiens had been.

The attack was heralded by a prolonged bombardment by gas shells, which began on April 7, and which was merged with a bombardment of high explosive shells as the zero hour drew near. The infantry assault developed in the early hours of April 9. Its main weight fell on the Portuguese, who held the line midway between Armentières and the La Bassée Canal. These troops, who had been in the line too long without relief, gave way before the first impact of the German attack; and their defection uncovered the flanks of the

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British on each side of them. Into the gap thus created the Germans poured, and before nightfall they had crossed both the Lys and the Lawe Rivers. Fortunately, the 55th West Lancashire Division stood firm before the important British centre of Béthune; but, to the north, the Germans succeeded in isolating Armentières, which had to be surrendered to them the next day, and they began a dangerous movement toward Hazebrouck, the chief railway centre of the British forces in Flanders.



THE BATTLE OF THE LYS

So serious did this new German threat to the Channel ports appear that Sir Douglas Haig was compelled, with a heavy heart, to withdraw from the Flanders ridges (Messines, Wytschaete and Passchendaele), which had been won at the cost of terrific losses only a few months before, and to take up a new line just in front of Ypres. Preparations were actually made for flooding the approaches to Calais and

Dunkirk, and for evacuating from these ports all non-essential personnel. On April 11, Sir Douglas Haig had issued the famous order of the day in which he appealed to his men to fight *à l'outrance*. "Every position must be held to the last man: there must be no retirement. With our backs to the wall, and believing in the justice of our cause, each one of us must fight on to the end." By April 13 the village of Vieux Berquin, not five miles from Hazebrouck, had fallen; and it seemed as though the Germans were on the eve of a great success.

But the appeal of the Commander-in-chief bore fruit. The British infantry, many of them boys of eighteen and nineteen just drafted out from England, fought with a desperate courage which was beyond all praise. At each side of the gap which the Germans had torn in the line, the British troops stood firm as a rock, the resistance of the 55th Division near Festubert and Givenchy being paralleled by the stubborn stand of the 9th (Scottish) Division on the Messines Ridge; and the slender units that sought to stem the tide of the German advance in the salient fought every foot of the ground. The crisis came on April 13. On that day the Germans had nothing between them and Hazebrouck but the remnants of two British divisions, the 29th and the 31st, strung out over a very wide front. All day they strove furiously to batter their way through; but, by a miracle, the tenuous line held, and thus time was given for the First Australian Division, which was being rushed up by rail from the Somme, to detrain at Hazebrouck and to dig themselves in along the edge of the Forest of Nieppe.

In this way the road to Hazebrouck was closed, and the worst of the danger averted. British reserves from the south now began to appear on the battlefield in increasing numbers; and by the middle of the month French reserves also began to arrive. Ludendorff, lured on by his first success, had now definitely committed himself to a trial of strength, and he still strove fiercely to extend his gains. On April



PORTUGUESE ON THE WESTERN FRONT

Profiting by the experience acquired by British and French construction corps the Portuguese were able to apply the best methods in making shelters, blockhouses and dug-outs on their sector of the front. They adopted the helmet used by the British Army and might thus be mistaken for troops from the United Kingdom.



FOOD FOR THE FIGHTERS

Bringing supplies up through communication trenches to the front lines. Robust and alert the Portuguese soldiers bore good-humoredly the arduous tasks entailed in supplying large quantities of food to men under fire. Before the war the Portuguese Army was chiefly composed of Colonial troops, when war was declared an army of 100,000 was quickly raised. They served in France brigaded with the British.

British Official

15 he captured Bailleul. But this and other local gains brought him no nearer to his goal; and after April 17 the battle of the Lys for the time being died down.

LUDENDORFF'S LAST ATTACKS ON THE BRITISH FRONT.

Having been able meanwhile to reorganize his troops on the Amiens front, and having drawn off from this front some of the Allied reserves,

neux was once more firmly in British hands, and the last threat to the safety of Amiens had been removed.

Ludendorff was now like a boxer who, having failed to administer to his opponent a knock-out blow, strikes out right and left in a blind fury. The attack near Villers Bretonneux was followed on April 25 by a renewed assault on the Flanders front. This assault,



IN THE WAKE OF THE GERMANS

The cemetery was found in this condition as the British advanced. The stone slabs had been taken from the graves to construct dug-outs, and the graveyard had shared in the general destruction of the countryside, a destruction which has marred as with a long weal the fair country of France.

British Official

Ludendorff now made another and final attempt to carry out his original plan. On the morning of April 23, after a heavy bombardment lasting three hours, the Germans attacked on the whole British front south of the Somme, and assisted by German tanks, which now for the first time met British tanks in action, they broke through opposite Amiens and captured the important and critical village of Villers Bretonneux. But before the Germans were able to consolidate their new positions, a brilliant night attack carried out by Australian and British troops swept them back; and by the afternoon of April 24 Villers Breton-

neux was once more firmly in British hands, and the last threat to the safety of Amiens had been removed. Ludendorff was now like a boxer who, having failed to administer to his opponent a knock-out blow, strikes out right and left in a blind fury. The attack near Villers Bretonneux was followed on April 25 by a renewed assault on the Flanders front. This assault, which was carried out after a bombardment of exceptional intensity, met at first with some success. Kemmel Hill, the highest point of observation on the Flanders front, was wrested from the French troops defending it; and the British were compelled to flatten out still further their line about Ypres. But this success was really the Germans' undoing. It encouraged them to attempt on April 28 a series of strong attacks against the French and British troops in the sector immediately south of Ypres, attacks which broke down no less decisively than their attacks opposite Arras had broken down just one month before. This second severe



BELGIANS WITH MACHINE GUNS

The use of machine guns, in numbers hitherto unsuspected, was one of the developments of the war; after the reconstitution of the Belgian army the companies of field-gunners were so increased as to supply liberally every fighting unit. Both as an offensive and as a defensive weapon the mitrailleuse was increasingly used by both sides.

repulse discouraged the Germans from any further effort against the British front, which had once more become stable; and Ludendorff now turned his attention to the French front, in the hope of obtaining there the success which had thus far eluded him.

THE GERMAN EFFORT FAILS TO ACCOMPLISH ITS PURPOSE.

Since March 21 Ludendorff had thrown against the British army, and against the French forces which had come to its assistance, no less than one hundred and forty-one divisions. Under this staggering blow the British army, which had a strength of only fifty-five infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions, had reeled back. Its total casualties had been more than 300,000 men, of whom about 70,000 had been taken prisoners; it had lost 1,000 guns, 4,000 machine guns, 700 trench mortars, 200 tanks, and an incalculable quantity of stores. Ludendorff had succeeded in

making an advance such as no other general had succeeded in making since the phase of trench-warfare had dawned. His staff work had been admirable, and his troops had shown a courage, a resource, and an endurance of no mean order. Yet the bitter truth was that his offensive had been a failure. Thanks to the dogged and indomitable tenacity of the British infantry, never better than when fighting an uphill fight against heavy odds, and thanks to the ready and loyal gallantry of the French, and the genius of General Foch, he had failed to strike the Allies in any vital spot. The all-important railway centres of Amiens and Hazebrouck had both defied him; he had neither destroyed the British armies nor separated them from the French; there remained nothing for him but to try conclusions with the Allies elsewhere.

W. S. WALLACE.



UNSCATHED AMID THE RUINS

The statue of Joan of Arc which stands before the cathedral of Rheims was not harmed by the bombardment which wrought such havoc in the city and did irreparable harm to the beautiful cathedral. The group in the picture is that of the Spanish Governmental Mission on a visit to the war zone in France.

N. Y. Times



THE ST. DENIS GATE PROTECTED BY SANDBAGS

View of the gate showing the protective sandbags mounting high on its base. St. Denis, only $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Paris, is famous as the burial city of the kings of France. Louis VI solemnly adopted the *oriflamme* (auriflamme from its red and gold colors) or standard of St. Denis as the banner of the kings of France.

N. Y. Times



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MARSHAL FOCH.

In supreme Command of the Allied Forces on the Western Front, from April, 1918.



A Great French Searchlight

Listening Apparatus.

CHAPTER LXII

The Marne: The Beginning of Victory

FOCH CHECKS LUDENDORFF'S THRUST TOWARD PARIS AND TAKES THE INITIATIVE

FRENCH historians include the several offensives and counter-offensives of 1918 in one campaign which they call the "Battle of France." It is probable that posterity will endorse this view for it is manifestly impossible to disassociate any one phase of it from the others, and the long-drawn-out struggle has all the aspects of a duel between two armies, two staffs, two commanders. "Wherein," writes Madelin, "one broke off only to fight again, drew back but to seek anew the vital spot, wherein suddenly one of the antagonists by an uninterrupted series of thrusts forced back the other, pinned him down and finally gave him the *quietus* of the end." Through all the forest of guns, of *mitrailleuses*, and of cannon the insistent clash of the two master-blades is never lost.

**UNITED COMMAND GIVES THE GERMANS
A GREAT ADVANTAGE.**

In the opening round the Germans had had the enormous advantage of united command. Eric von Ludendorff, undoubtedly the brains of the Hindenburg legend, had bent all the powers of his great mind and single purpose towards ending the deadlock upon the Western Front. In the olden days siege warfare was at an end once the enemy had broken through. In modern trench warfare, experience has

shown that the break-through is but a prelude to the battle with reserves, and upon this latter point every previous offensive had hitherto collapsed. Reversal to the theory of the "limited objective" in the battle of the Somme and later battles of 1917, where the infantry occupied only the ground won in a single bombardment, had had little effect upon the long line of the Western Front. By successfully restoring the element of surprise in his attack upon the British in March and April, 1918, and by the rapidity and depth of his "infiltration" of their lines, Ludendorff had almost achieved decision. But not quite. At the critical moment, the weariness of the attacking troops and the belated arrival of reserves had stopped the way.

**LUDENDORFF ALLOWS HIMSELF TO BE
DIVERTED FROM HIS MAIN OBJECTIVE.**

In his later attacks Ludendorff sought first to exhaust the reserves before he struck his main blow. In swerving from this purpose and allowing one of these diversions to become a main operation, the great commander lost the war. In May, however, he stood high, at the head of superior forces, whose whole line of thought had been carefully and successfully diverted from trench warfare to the offensive; strong moreover, in the possession of a new method already

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triumphantly demonstrated against the Russians before Riga, and against the British in Flanders and Picardy.

DIFFICULTIES IN THE WAY OF A UNITED COMMAND.

On the other side, the Allies had faced the first great German onslaught of March 21 at a disadvantage, their

the disaster of Caporetto, a supreme war cabinet known as the Versailles Council had been established, but its powers were not executive—merely advisory, and early in 1918 an executive Military Council was added for the purpose of coördinating the strategy of allied commanders. Such coördination proved inadequate. On March 21 the Germans massed forty divisions against fourteen British divisions and in four days almost achieved their aim of separating the French and British armies. The following day at Douellens, just behind the lines, a conference of allied statesmen and generals without reference to their governments placed General Foch in partial control of the armies on the Western Front, and later his powers were extended. At this late hour by a judicious use of reserves the German hammer-blow was arrested. The protagonist had entered the lists, and throughout the succeeding phases of the battle his skillful direction is everywhere to be felt.



MARSHAL FERDINAND FOCH

Commander-in-Chief of all the Allied Armies, and the universally recognized organizer of victory.

International Film Service

FERDINAND FOCH, THE NEW LEADER OF THE ALLIED ARMIES.

Ferdinand Foch was at this time in his sixty-eighth year. Before the war at the *École de Guerre* as lecturer and director, and as author of two treatises *Les Principes de la Guerre* and *Conduite de la Guerre*, he had made his name as a master

supreme command in the hands of a polyglot committee, whose members were responsible to separate governments, and whose ill-constructed machinery began to creak as soon as strain was put upon it. Steps towards unity of command had been slowly taken by the Allies—and for obvious reasons. If a “generalissimo” were appointed, he would, as a matter of course, be a French General, and the French were naturally diffident to press the point. The British had submitted to Nivelles, and had paid the cost in long casualty lists. Nevertheless, after

of strategy and as a brilliant theorist. When war came he had proved the soundness of his reasonings in the battle of the Marne. In 1915, however, his Artois offensive had failed, and in 1916 after the battle of the Somme he had been somewhat eclipsed. After Nivelles fell Foch became adviser to the French General Staff, and after Caporetto the counsellor of the Italians. The crisis of March 25 called him to assume the gravest responsibility, which since the days of Napoleon has ever rested upon a soldier. In a few hours he made his

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personality felt, forming a new headquarters rapidly, setting in motion the machinery necessary for the command of 5,000,000 men on a front of 450 miles, and rushing troops to the points of danger between French and British armies by any and every means—so that in ten days he had assembled twice as many reserves as the estimates of the French Staff had called for.

THE DIFFERENT PHASES OF THE LAST CAMPAIGNS.

In the death-grip of 1918 five phases are to be recognized. The first phase, that of the German offensive up to July 15, includes four separate actions: against the British on the Somme, March 21; against the British in Flanders, April 8; against the French and British on the Aisne, May 27; and against the French on the Oise, June 9.

The second phase opens with the second Battle of the Marne, July 15-August 6, when Foch, having thrown back the fifth enemy attack to the east and west of Rheims, passes to an offensive on his flank, July 18, and succeeds in hurling back the enemy on to Marne and Vesle.

In the third phase, which opens August 8, the British in an offensive in the Somme-Oise sector push back the enemy to his starting-place on the Hindenburg line. During this period also the Americans drive in the St. Mihiel salient, September 12, and satisfy Foch that he can use their army as his right wing in the next offensive.

The fourth phase witnesses an attack by the Allies' centre on the famous Hindenburg line. While this is being broken the Germans are also attacked on the two wings: on the right in Flanders by the British and Belgian armies, on the left by the Franco-American group.

The last phase of all is a concentric attack converging on to the Ardennes

region by all armies, so menacing even in its conception and early stages that the enemy speaks of armistice. When attack to the east of the Moselle seems imminent, and the Flanders army having reached the frontier of Holland threatens the enemy's right wing, he capitulates.



GERMANY'S REAL COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF

General Ludendorff, in chief command of the great German offensive on the Western Front in the spring and summer of 1918.

Ruschin

THE SITUATION WHEN GENERAL FOCH ASSUMED COMMAND.

When Foch assumed the direction of the Allied armies Ludendorff's two thrusts against the British had succeeded in gaining considerable ground, and he had inflicted stunning losses in prisoners and *matériel*, but they had failed of their ultimate aim of destroying the British army. "In arranging for further operations," writes Ludendorff, "there was no time to lose. The initiative which we had seized on the Western Front must be kept and the first great blow must as soon as possible

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be followed by a second." The German Chief of Staff would have preferred to strike again at the British in Flanders but the enemy there now was so strong in numbers that, perforce, he turned to the French front in a determination to exhaust its reserves, lest their intervention should, as in April and March, again save the situation. He chose the Aisne sector because it was weakly held: troops had been

For once, Foch was mistaken in his judgment of the direction of the renewed thrust, and when the blow fell the French front was very lightly held; the first lines having only one division to eight kilometres and the second lines but one to every fourteen, while behind the front between Aisne and Marne were divisions only recently brought back from Somme or Flanders battles.



MAP ILLUSTRATING THE DRIVE TOWARD PARIS

drawn off to send to Flanders and their places taken by tired English divisions who had been through the great offensives. Furthermore, advance to the plateaux of the Aisne and the Marne would threaten Paris and give point to the cry of the French for the removal of their reserves from Flanders and Picardy. The Chemin des Dames and Craonne plateau offered great natural difficulties, but to the Germans these were not so formidable as those which they had overcome on the Italian frontier in October, 1917. A secondary operation against Compiègne would suppress the salient created in the lines north of the Aisne.

LUDENDORFF'S ATTACK ON THE AISNE SECTOR.

The region attacked falls into three distinct sectors: to the west the Craonne plateau, dominating the marshes of the Ailette and deemed almost impregnable by the Allies, was held by the French VI Army under Duchesne. Eastward, between the end of the plateau and the hills to the south of the Aisne, French failure in 1917 had left open the *trouée* or Gap of Juvin-court, and here four tired British divisions belonging to the 9th Corps were in line. South of the Aisne as far as Reims, the French V Army's forward lines ran through the low

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land, and their support lines on the hills from Aisne to Vesle.

Against the seven or eight weary French and British divisions, Ludendorff flung twenty-eight German divisions of the VII and I Armies of von Boehn and Fritz von Below, who had been in rest billets since the middle of April training for the coming

THE SECRECY OF THE PREPARATIONS BRINGS STARTLING SUCCESS.

As a result, indications of the coming attack were few. The afternoon of the day before two prisoners interrogated by General Maud'huy declared that there would be an attack next day on the Chemin des Dames after violent bombardment, but Maud'huy



BEGINNING OF A RAID

Algerian sharpshooters starting out on a raid on German trenches over the snow-covered battlefield. French Colonial troops gained a great reputation upon the Western Front for audacity and daring in raids and attacks upon forts as in their taking of Douaumont and Fort Vaux. They suffered considerably from the west European climate.

N. Y. Times

battles, and of whom many were veterans of the Aisne battles of 1917 and thus thoroughly familiar with the ground. The formidable artillery assembled, 4,000 pieces, was fully four times as numerous as the French: it was to emit sufficient poison gas to paralyze the defense. Precautions as to surprise were even more careful than in the preliminary battle of March 21. Attacking troops were brought up in darkness only, and did not relieve the troops in the front lines until the last moment. Artillery was pushed to the front with the wheels padded, and the severest penalties were laid upon the clanking of harness.

huy still reserved his order to destroy the bridges over the Aisne and Vesle. When the order was given it came too late.

On the 27th of May bombardment started, with unusual predominance of toxic shells, from Vauxaillon to the neighborhood of Rheims, aiming at the bridges of the Aisne and even at those of the Vesle. Immediately telephone communication was cut, dense fumes from explosives forbade the use of optic signalling, so that great confusion resulted.

At 3:40 the German infantry left their trenches, and found the defense—as Ludendorff had planned—half par-

alyzed by the asphyxiating fumes. The formidable region of plateaux and ravines now became dangerous to the defender under such conditions, as the enemy insinuated himself into hollows and captured crests. By noon, in spite of heroic resistance, the French and British had fallen back on to the Aisne, and because the order to destroy the bridges was given too late, the river proved no obstacle and at the end of the morning was successfully crossed. Afternoon wore on and still the French fell back, and as the late Spring twilight fell, two German divisions gained the Vesle. Night hardly stayed pursuit, dawn gave it fresh impetus. During the darkness one German division had crossed the Vesle and was advancing upon Fère-en-Tardenois. At 11 o'clock Fismes fell, but eastward the advance was somewhat slower. To the west the enemy reached the *massif* of Château-Thierry, and his right wing penetrated Soissons itself, where through the night hours fierce fighting took place in the irregular streets.

LUDENDORFF ALLOWS HIMSELF TO BE DIVERTED FROM FLANDERS.

"I had thought," writes Ludendorff, "we should succeed in reaching only the neighborhood of Soissons and Fismes. By the second and third days these objectives had in places been left far behind. We had gained ground especially beyond Fismes, not so much beyond Soissons." In two days German advance had stormed not only the plateaux of the Aisne, but the Aisne itself and the Vesle; had moreover, in the completeness of the surprise, taken vast numbers of prisoners and captured stores of accumulated *matériel* left for safety beneath the protection of the barriers of the plateaux.

At this juncture, May 28, Fate took a hand. German victory had revived German lust for conquest in all its power, and urged on the armies of the Fatherland to ruin. Ludendorff's plan still contemplated the separating of the British and French armies and pushing the former back against the Channel. The attack in the Aisne sector was intended only to alarm the

French and to draw their reserves from the north. After this diversion the attack was to be to the north. The overwhelming success of the Aisne attack, together with certain dynastic considerations led to a change of plan, which was to prove Ludendorff's undoing.

THE VANITY OF THE CROWN PRINCE DEMANDS THE DRIVE ON PARIS.

Another Crown Prince, Rupprecht of Bavaria, was holding the Flanders salient in the north; to him would belong the prestige of the drive upon the sea. The Crown Prince of Prussia desired the glory of the advance upon Paris, which the apparent dissolution of the French army seemed to open up. After the Council the decision of the staff was announced: "The attack will be pressed." Thus the march beyond the Vesle was decided: the centre to the Marne if possible, the wings to capture Rheims on the left, and after Soissons on the right the forest of Villers-Cotterets. That same day, May 28, had the German Command been given to weighing evidence from the other side and shaping its plans accordingly, their decision might have been revised. The American 1st Division, brigaded with the III French Army, attacked in the Montdidier section and took the village of Cantigny, and 170 prisoners. American troops had before this been engaged in minor actions in Lorraine but this was their first share in the main battle, and their capture and consolidation of the Cantigny position was fraught with meaning as to their fighting value in the immediate future.

The second phase begins on the morning of the 29th May. While the Allied publics thought of Paris, Ludendorff strove to broaden the ends of the "pocket" which the continued advance of his VII Army in the centre had created, and Foch concentrated on holding firm its two gateways against the hour when Germany might be taken in the great snare which she was laying for herself.

A DEEP WEDGE IS DRIVEN INTO THE FRENCH LINE.

Soissons fell on the 29th, but acting upon the decision of the French Staff

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General Maud'huy hung on before the eastern edge of the Forest of Villers-Cotterets for forty-eight hours with the remnants of his unfortunate 11th Corps. On the left the Germans succeeded in encircling Rheims on three sides, but its wooded heights still offered obstinate resistance. In the centre by the evening of the 30th they had reached the Marne between Château-Thierry and Dormans.

THE BASE OF THE SALIENT CANNOT BE WIDENED.

Held fast by the two breakwaters the tide of battle was slackening, and though the great waves came again through the first week of June it was clear that their force was almost spent. It was time for the second thrust at Compiègne which should have been delivered June 7, coincidentally with the attack southwest of Soissons but



FRENCH MOUNTAIN ARTILLERY, THE "65's"

The Alpine Chasseurs were accompanied by light batteries armed with "65's," reduced "75's" with every characteristic of the famous gun reproduced but having less weight so as to ensure mobility. Loaded on the backs of mules every piece can easily be dismounted and remounted, gun, carriage, wheels, limber-box assembled in a few minutes ready for action.

The salient had been deepened—it had not been widened—and the position of its flanks was becoming more perilous with each step of advance. The deeper a pocket is driven the more dangerous it is unless the mouth is correspondingly widened. The last day of the month witnessed furious attacks: at the gate-post on the right as von Boehn strove vainly to debouch from Soissons, on the left as von Below attacked at Rheims (June 1) with tanks. At first he made gains, but a French counter-attack later in the day drove him back and captured some of his tanks.

for the delay of the heavy artillery. On the 9th von Hutier threw fifteen divisions against the Allied front of twenty-five miles between Noyon and Montdidier. The engagement formed part of the original offensive and Ludendorff's objective was Compiègne, to widen the base of his new salient and link it up with that on the Somme. The main obstacle to his advance was the Lassigny group of hills, and von Hutier strove by an advance down the stream of the Matz to turn their flank.

This time the French were prepared

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and the Germans achieved only a local success in a costly advance up the Matz valley. They captured the hills but sharp French counter-attacks were delivered on the 11th, 12th and 13th, and finally to avoid further heavy casualties the German Headquarters called off the action.

From the middle of June nearly the whole of the new front of the German

ing numbers were coming into line, Britain was restoring her army, and Foch making careful plans to check the new attack. The Germans bridged the gap in publishing a list of gains and in what they hoped was a final blow against the Italians. Its failure was a severe blow both to the Higher Command and to the military and civilian morale.



A GERMAN BARBER PLYING HIS TRADE

Although we have evidences of the absence of the barber from military life in the title of "poilus" or hairy ones bestowed upon the French troops, pictures such as this assure us that sometimes the arts of peace were pursued in the days of war—provided the trench was far enough in the rear.

Henry Ruschin

Crown Prince's group of armies became quiet. Between the Aisne and Château-Thierry some tension remained, which ever and again broke forth into local actions. Thus on the 11th the Americans made a fine advance at Belleau Wood and took 300 prisoners. But Ludendorff was resting his machine and making due preparation for a further heavy blow. The pause was necessary, in spite of elaborate winter preparations, because he had pressed his actions even when casualties became very heavy. It was going to cost him dear, for all the while the Americans in ever-increas-

THE GERMAN PEOPLE BEGIN TO LOSE THEIR HOPE OF AN EARLY DECISION.

Watching the French political situation with eagerness for clefts in the national armor made by the late German success, Ludendorff says, "In the session of the Chamber early in June, which I awaited with interest, there appeared, indeed, no sign of weakness. Clemenceau's words were full of pride and exemplary strength, 'We are now giving ground but we shall never surrender.' 'We shall be victorious if the public authorities are equal to their task.' 'I shall fight before Paris, I shall fight in Paris, I shall fight

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behind Paris.'” Guided in straight paths the French nation held firmly in most real peril after the terrible blows of March and May on Somme and Aisne. Yet Ludendorff knew that at home in the Fatherland—even on the front among the new battalions—a different spirit was abroad beneath the Prussian eagle. Confident of victory as they had been in the spring of the

—due not only to enemy propaganda but also to the influence of the Bolsheviks—he seriously thought of relinquishing the offensive. “But I finally decided against this policy. . . . Of the two an offensive makes less demand on the men, and involves no higher loss. The offensive had the incalculable moral advantage that it could not be voluntarily broken off.” Chained to



A COMPLICATED SYSTEM OF WIRE AND CABLE

A complicated system of telephone wires ran from the most advanced posts to the rear, and the wires were frequently broken by the fall of the enemy's projectiles. In the picture military signallers are repairing a wire in the middle of a crater carved out by the mighty explosion of a high-explosive shell.

French Official

year, and uplifted at the thought of overwhelming France and driving England from the seas, yet the root of German desire for victory was not for glory, nor in the first place for profit, but in reality an almost despairing craving for peace. “Easter bells will ring in peace,” said the Crown Prince to his soldiers, but Easter had passed and still the *Feldgrau* must fall in thousands to satisfy the Juggernaut of war.

FACTORS WHICH CONTROLLED THE GERMAN DECISION TO ATTACK.

And because Ludendorff was uneasily conscious of this shaken morale

victory, then, the Commander-in-Chief in view of the fact that most of the French reserves were in front of Paris and that the Château-Thierry-Verdun front was more lightly held, decided to strike there.

His immediate objective was Rheims, to enlarge his salient and improve the rear communications of the VII Army between the Aisne and Marne. Immediately following this operation he planned to concentrate artillery, trench mortars and flying squadrons on the Flanders front and possibly attack there a fortnight later. Preparations for the fourth great offensive were

carried out exactly on the same lines as were those for the previous ones. The VII Army was to cross the Marne east of Château-Thierry and advance towards Epernay. The I and III Armies attacking from both sides of Rheims were to bring their right wing past the Forêt de la Montagne de Rheims to Epernay and make Châlons-sur-Marne their principal objective. Thus, Rheims attacked from two sides must surely fall, the German salient would be eased, while the French reserves would be called off from both Paris and Flanders fronts, and a choice of advance upon one or both be offered to the German High Command. A clever plan—but one which did not reckon sufficiently with the strength of Foch's growing reserves. "We reckoned," said Ludendorff, "on an enemy counter-offensive between Aisne and Marne with Soissons as its primary objective and we organized the IX Army and the right wing of the VII accordingly." But this vital exposed right flank of the Germans was *not*, as the event showed, sufficiently fortified against the enemy thrust.

THE SUPREME WAR COUNCIL CONSIDERS THE SITUATION.

The Supreme War Council met at Versailles in July and took stock of the situation. It was undoubtedly grave. In two months the enemy had launched three successful offensives whose cost in men and territory was high. His armies lay now within 40 miles of Paris, and threatened the Channel ports. He had, seemingly, found the solution to the deadlock of modern warfare—for so far only one thing had checked the complete success of his attacks, the arrival—often belated and desperate—of precious reserves. If he succeeded in exhausting these the war would be won.

Fortunately, at this juncture the balance of man-power was at last shifting in the Allied favor. By July, the American army had twenty-five divisions in France, of whom twelve were ready or nearly ready to enter battle, and other American troops in their hundreds of thousands were arriving in ships which the submarine

warfare had failed to sink. Moreover, the delay had already given time to the stricken British army to raise up its head again. Troops from other fronts and from England had brought up the number of effective divisions in France from forty-nine in May to fifty-three in July. By increased output from the home factories, too, it was stronger now than it had ever been in artillery, machine guns, tanks and aeroplanes. Ludendorff was still superior by about a quarter of a million rifles, but in aircraft, in guns and, notably, in tanks, he was less well-equipped. Moreover, while his reserves were decreasing, those of the Allies were steadily growing.

FOCH CONSIDERS THE PROBLEMS AND MAKES HIS DECISION.

Because of this last factor Foch was at last able to plan, and not to improvise. He had no set formula to apply to his conduct of the campaign, but he followed certain general principles which he modified for conditions as they arose. Sir Frederick Maurice says: "So Foch did not tell the Allied statesmen assembled at Versailles, in these trying days when the Germans were engaged in tuning up their war-machines for their last great blow, very much about his plans. One of them asked him point-blank: 'But, General, if the Germans do make their great attack, what is your plan?' and Foch answered by striking out three rapid blows, with his right, with his left and again with his right, following these by launching out a vigorous kick. There was the principle of the art, dramatically described." The Commander-in-Chief had determined not to repeat Ludendorff's mistake of attempting the break-through before the enemy reserves were exhausted. At this date he knew not whether he would have to wait until 1919 for the big kick, but he had determined, after arresting the German onslaught, to deliver the first punch against the right flank of the enemy's salient.

FOCH DETERMINES TO KEEP THE SALIENT NARROW, AND THEN TO ATTACK.

To this two-fold problem of holding up the offensive and thus preserving the

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pocket, and of breaking through between Soissons and Château-Thierry where the foe was enmeshed, Foch devoted the six weeks' pause. To achieve the first, he had to provide an answer to the Von Hutier scheme of infiltration: for the second, a method of break-through that possessed the quality of surprise by eliminating artillery preparation. He had the rudiments of the check tactics all ready to his hand, for they had been prepared for use in the March battles,

Behind the forward zone lay a vacant region where Foch planned to pour a highly complex bombardment upon the attackers. Last of all and far enough back for the guns to survive the artillery preparation, were the French battle positions whose troops would be strong to receive the weakened lines of enemy infantry, easily dispose of them and then press forward in quick counter-attack.

To achieve a break-through by virtue of surprise Foch had a new



THE FORBIDDING ASPECT OF THE NEUTRAL ZONE

Some faint idea of the horror and desolation of No Man's Land may be gleaned from this picture. It winds, a strip of bare earth, between the opposing trenches which are here only a few yards apart, and is dotted with still figures that cannot be brought in. Beyond it shells are bursting continually.

though fog forbade their employment; and in the Noyon-Montdidier offensive of June 9 they had already achieved some success. To the east and west of Rheims and eastward to the Argonne where attack was expected (for in this case German precautions against surprise failed, prisoners had been captured, letters intercepted), Berthelot with the IX Army and Gouraud with the IV were in line. Upon the latter, to the east of Rheims, the greater blow would fall and in accordance with Foch's instructions he organized a thin outpost line which would merely serve to observe and signal the direction and force of the enemy assault.

weapon ready to hand, the small whip-pet tank. Cambrai had shown that tanks could replace a long bombardment and achieve surprise, and a further small operation in July of the Australian corps of the IV British Army, had established a *rapproch* between artillery, infantry and tanks, wherein the latter, working behind an artillery barrage, overcame the enemy's machine guns and drove the infantry into their dug-outs, where they fell an easy prey to British infantry.

THE GERMAN PLAN OF ATTACK AND THE FRENCH RESISTANCE.

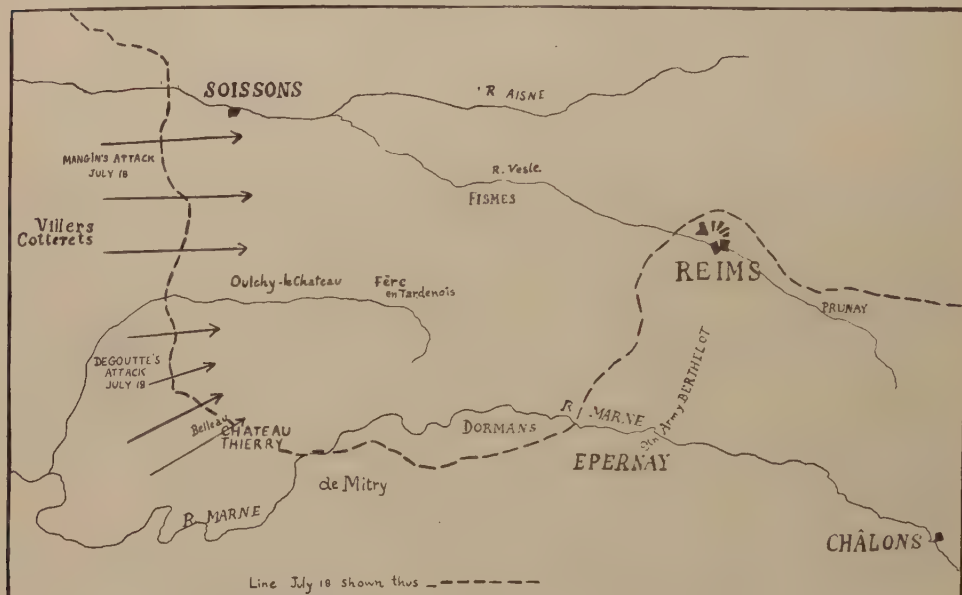
Upon July 15 the German offensive started. Von Mudra with the I German

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Army and von Einem with the III struck east and west of Rheims. Southwards von Boehn's VII Army pressed across the Marne between Château-Thierry and Dormans. If these attacks succeeded, and the front through the possession of Rheims was adequately supplied with railways, the IX Army on the western face of the salient was to join in a general advance upon Paris. Coincidentally, a further blow would be struck at the capital from the Amiens salient, and

THE ATTACK AROUND RHEIMS MAKES LITTLE HEADWAY.

Consistent with the new theory, bombardment, although terrific was brief. The German advance fell on the light forward troops, devoted men who knew their sacrificial purpose, and, having informed their comrades of the phases of the storm, died at their posts. As the attacking infantry gained the open zone it fell under an appalling storm of fire and its tanks, where they survived the artillery, foundered on



FOCH'S FLANK ATTACK UPON THE MARNE SALIENT

farther to the north in Flanders, Rupprecht could at last unloose his reserves against the British Army.

Facing von Einem and von Mudra lay the right wing and centre of Berthelot's IX Army, and the IV Army under Gouraud. Against von Boehn from east to west lay the left wing of the IX Army, and the VI Army under Dégoutte. With Gouraud was the American Rainbow Division (42d), on the Montagne de Rheims the Italian II Corps, and around the Château-Thierry salient the I American Corps. A British corps was divided between Mangin and Berthelot. At midnight on Sunday, July 14, Paris was awakened by the sound of great guns.

By the afternoon the flood had reached the French positions but failed to penetrate them. The following day Gouraud's men reentered the empty zone, and the German Headquarters ordered a suspension of the offensive which had captured no guns, but few prisoners and only such ground as Gouraud had deliberately relinquished.

Southwards (July 15-16) von Boehn was more successful, southwest of Rheims and between Dormans and Château-Thierry, but he failed to widen the salient for the Italians stood firm on the Montagne, and the Americans near Château-Thierry. The front wavered back and forth on the

17th-18th and then stood firm, the assault exhausted against incoming reserves. Ludendorff had made a mistake which was to cost him dear. He had driven deep into the French line but he could not break through, and his flanks were exposed.

JULY 18, THE DAY UPON WHICH THE TIDE TURNED.

Now Foch was ready, and he ordered Dégoutte and Mangin to spring a sur-

prise on the western face of the salient, by the news that a French attack had broken through his line southwest of Soissons.

Since Rheims had not been taken, the railways that passed through Soissons and the Soissons-Rheims highway were the only ones that fed the German troops in the salient. Soissons was then a vulnerable point and Ludendorff had half expected an attack in this quarter—had indeed been told



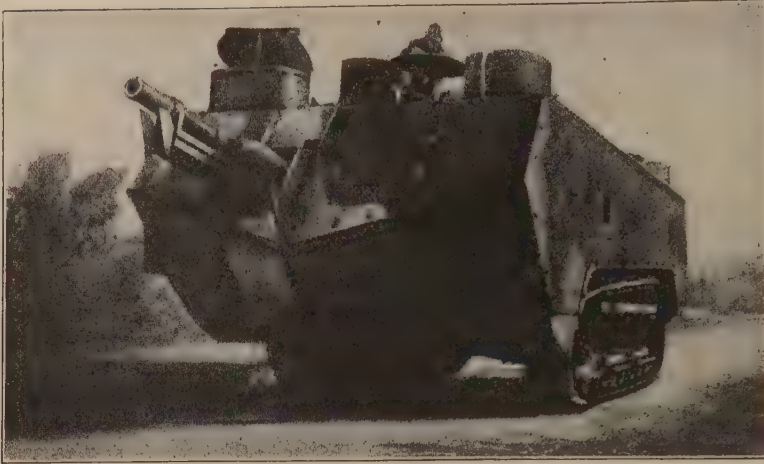
CHÂTEAU-THIERRY ON THE MARNE

Château-Thierry has entered into the realms of immortality. Upon its outskirts lies the high-water mark of the tide of German success. To its narrow cobbled streets will throng in days to come the generations of those whose ancestors fought here to stem the wave of conquest, and turned it back.

Ruschin

prise on the western face of the salient, July 18, between Château-Thierry and Soissons on a front of twenty-five miles. The French generals believed that their numbers warranted advance on only half that distance. "We haven't the men," they exposulated. "I know," replied Foch, "still you must attack the whole of the German flank." Ludendorff was absent from the Marne for the moment: after the failure against Gouraud he had gone up to review the chances of an offensive by Rupprecht's men on the Flanders front. He was recalled

of a surprise movement accompanied by tanks to take place on the 11th, but nothing had come of the rumor. The German trenches in the area had not been made with the formidable thoroughness of their rear lines elsewhere, thrown up by the forced labor of French civilians and prisoners of war. In his own narrative for this omission Ludendorff blames impartially the influenza and the faltering morale both prevalent in the army at the time. In the event of attack the Allied Commander-in-Chief had foreseen that von Boehn would be fighting with his



IMPROVED FRENCH TANK FIRST USED IN CHAMPAGNE, 1918

head facing the wrong way, but there were strong reserves within the salient and a new army under von Eben forming in the rear, so that Foch in asking Haig both for French reserves and British supports was taking considerable risk in view of the freshness of Rupprecht's divisions in the north. Haig cheerfully agreed and sent not only the eight French divisions but a British corps as well.

MANGIN DELIVERS THE STROKE WHICH BEGINS THE GERMAN DOWNFALL.

Using the Forest of Villers-Cotterets for cover Mangin concentrated north of the Ourcq. The Moroccan Division and the First and Second American formed the spearhead of the attack. To the south Dégoutte formed his lines between Ourcq and Marne. Ludendorff's words carry on the narrative: "After a short and sharp artillery preparation and a smoke screen, he (Foch) attacked with massed infantry and a stronger force of tanks than had ever before been concentrated in one place. For the first time small, low, fast tanks that allowed the use of machine guns above the corn were used; our machine guns were hindered by it, except when they were mounted on tripods. . . . Tanks were also observed which were used solely for the transport of men. These passed through our lines, put down their passengers with machine guns behind them, to form machine-gun nests, and

then promptly returned for reinforcements."

By the use of his reserves and by means of his tanks Foch accomplished the break-through. Though the enemy threw in three divisions, by the evening of the 19th Mangin's guns dominated both the railway and high-

way in Soissons. South of the Ourcq advance was less rapid but the situation to the north of the river necessitated a withdrawal of the troops fighting on the south bank. They were closely followed up by Dégoutte's army which included American units.

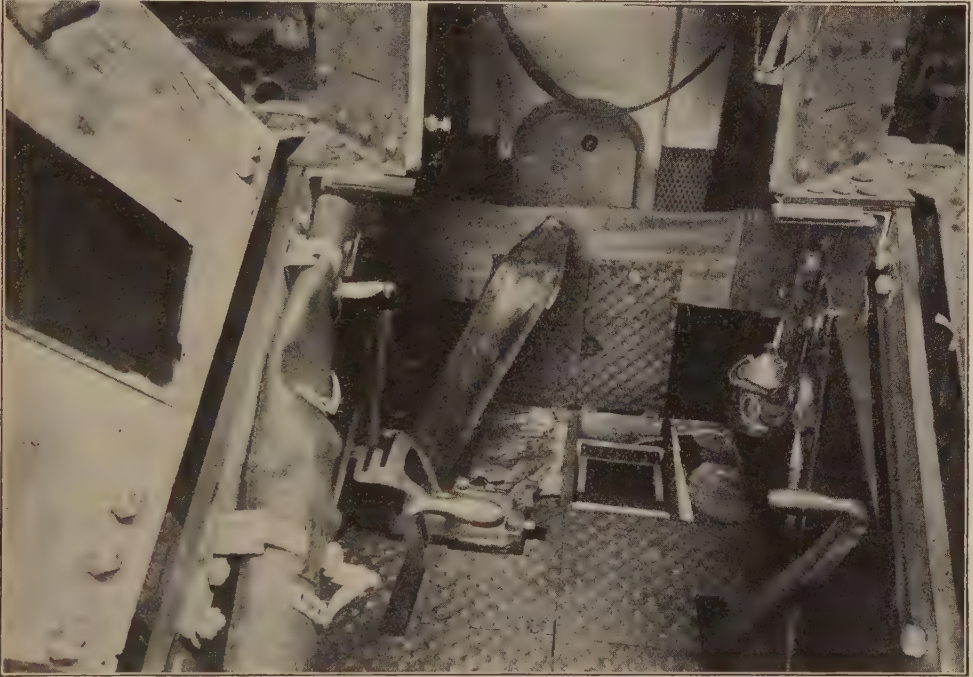
LUDENDORFF STRIVES TO EXTRICATE HIMSELF FROM HIS AWKWARD POSITION.

Ludendorff now faced a crisis. He had lost his communications; the neck of his salient was threatened; withdrawal, even over the Marne, was rendered difficult because Franco-American counter-attacks had seized the heights dominating the river. In this juncture, rushing up reinforcements, the German Commander made his men stand southwest of Soissons and west of Rheims on the Ardre, so that the troops retiring from the Marne should feel no panic. Throughout the 19th Foch attacked all around the salient, particularly at its exits; to Mangin and Dégoutte were added De Mitry from below the Marne, and Berthelot westward from Rheims, but though it was a critical day for the *Feldgrau* they were beginning to hold, and on the 20th the withdrawal of troops from the south bank of the Marne was effected in good order. Another day and it became apparent that Ludendorff would get his men behind the Vesle without a *débâcle*. It was important for him to move slowly for

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he had stores of vital importance that he could not abandon. But at this time the Flanders offensive was definitely given up and Rupprecht's reserves were thrown in to stiffen the defense. Dégoutte was attacking now north-east from Château-Thierry, and the Franco-American troops on the point of the salient pushed the Germans back behind the Ourcq, where

strong counter-attacks but they were broken. Ludendorff finding his salient still narrowing retreated behind the Vesle (August 1) and there in strongly prepared positions faced the enemy again. By the second of the month Soissons fell, the Marne salient had been flattened out, and the enemy's line ran from Soissons to Rheims along the Vesle. He had lost over 35,000



INTERIOR OF FRENCH BABY TANK

In this Char d'Assaut, as the French called their tanks, one can see in the background the driver's seat, with a broad strap in front, and in the foreground, the two foot controls.

they attempted a stand on the line Oulchy-le-Château and Fère-en-Tardenois. Mangin, reinforced (July 23), directed another blow between the Ourcq and Soissons against the flank of the Germans opposing Dégoutte, who also at the same time received reinforcements.

THE OFFENSIVE HAD NOW PASSED TO THE ALLIES.

Pressed on three sides German defense between Aisne and Ourcq gradually broke down and, July 26, Dégoutte entered Fère-en-Tardenois. Rupprecht's reserves now delivered

men and more than 700 guns. Nine American Divisions (equivalent to eighteen French) had taken part in this offensive. A more detailed account of their participation will be given elsewhere. The battle, however, in spite of the presence of British and American troops, was planned and led by the French. Foch had checked the enemy's last offensive, and himself delivered his own first short, sharp thrust. He now tossed the ball to Sir Douglas Haig who, August 8, attacked the enemy on the Amiens front.

MURIEL BRAY.



DEFEATING THE SUBMARINE

Various posters used all over Canada to speed up production. The office of Food Controller was created in Canada in June, 1917, and in February, 1918, the Canada Food Board was established in order to secure the largest possible supply of food to the fighting forces of the Allies and to the civil population in Europe by means of increased production and conservation of food in Canada. Steps were taken to add to the production of farms. Over 1,100 farm tractors were bought and resold to farmers at cost price. Under a plan which was called "Soldiers of the Soil" 14,685 boys were enrolled and a great percentage of them placed on farms in Canada in 1918. Field crops increased 16.8 per cent in 1918, and were worth more than in any preceding year. All dealers in foods were placed under license and required to operate under the regulations made by the Food Board. A system of permits was established for the control of foods entering and leaving Canada.



Tractor for Threshing in the West

CHAPTER LXIII

The Canadian People and the War

A RECORD OF SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS DURING A TRYING PERIOD

BY SIR JOHN WILLISON

WHEN the war came Canada was in the throes of a severe commercial depression. Many factories were on half time. In the cities and towns thousands of workers were unemployed. There was a general suspension of private and municipal building and of all Provincial and Federal undertakings involving heavy expenditures. Such Western centres as Winnipeg, Saskatoon, Calgary, Edmonton and Vancouver had enjoyed a feverish era of land trading. In Eastern Canada, Toronto and Montreal had a like experience. In many lesser communities, particularly in the newer Provinces, land values were grossly inflated and hundreds of acres of farm lands platted for building and provided with paper parks and playgrounds. Two new transcontinental railways, in which hundreds of millions of borrowed money were invested, were nearing completion and many industries had expanded beyond the immediate demand for their products. It was natural, therefore, that when war was joined to depression, and the money markets were closed against Canadian borrowings, the people looked to the future with apprehension and dismay.

One recalls the grave anxiety of bankers, the gloom on the exchanges,

the fear of general collapse and panic. But there was no division or conflict of opinion among the people as to what was the duty of Canada. It is true the common expectation was that the war would be of short duration. A three-months' war was the general conviction. That the conflict could extend beyond six months was regarded as improbable and impossible. It was thought that Canada would be required to raise an army of fifty thousand but few believed that more than one hundred thousand soldiers would be enrolled. Indeed one remembers the anxious apprehension among the second and third Canadian Contingents during the period of training that the war would be over before they could reach Europe.

NO DOUBT AS TO THE DUTY OF THE DOMINION.

On August 1st, 1914, before war was actually declared, the Canadian Government, through the Governor General, the Duke of Connaught, sent a despatch to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, in which it was said, "My advisers, while expressing their most earnest hope that a peaceful solution of existing international difficulties may be achieved and their strong desire to co-operate in every

possible way for that purpose, wish me to express to His Majesty's Government the firm assurance that if unhappily war should ensue, the Canadian people will be united in a common resolve to put forth every effort, and to make every sacrifice necessary to ensure the integrity, and maintain the honor of our Empire." These and like messages from the other Dominions were acknowledged with gratitude by

despatch to the King said:—"Canada stands united from the Pacific to the Atlantic in her determination to uphold the honor and traditions of our Empire."

A SOLEMN SCENE AT THE EMERGENCY SESSION OF PARLIAMENT.

An emergency session of Parliament was called for August 18th to sanction the resolve of the Government to send troops from Canada and to vote the necessary appropriations. No such solemnity has ever brooded over the Canadian Parliament as when this decision was taken, nor has any Parliament in a free country in a great decision ever expressed more faithfully the temper of the press and the people. Even more impressive and eloquent than the speech of Sir Robert Borden, Prime Minister and leader of the Conservative party, was that of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the French-Canadian leader of the Liberal party. "Speaking," he said, "for those who sit around me, speaking for the wide constituencies which we represent in this House, I hasten to say that to all these measures we are prepared to give immediate assent. If in what has been done or what remains to be done there may be anything which in our judgment should not be done or should be differently done, we raise no question, we take no exception, we offer no criticism, and shall offer no criticism so long as there is danger at the front." Emphasizing the fact that Great Britain could have had peace by desertion of Belgium, the Liberal leader characterized the proposal as infamous and declared "There is not to-day all over the universe a British subject, there is not outside the British Empire a single man, whose admiration for England is not greater by reason of this firm and noble attitude." He added, "From this painful war the British Empire will emerge with a new bond of union, the pride of all its citizens, and a living light to all other nations."

THE PRIME MINISTER STATES THE POSITION OF THE GOVERNMENT.

The Prime Minister described at length the causes which drove Great Britain into the war, asserted in



SIR ROBERT BORDEN

Canada's premier 1911-1920 and leader since 1901 of the Conservative party in the House of Commons, he represented Canada in the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, 1917.

the King and Imperial ministers. The action of the Canadian Cabinet was not challenged by any interest or element in Canada. In Ontario, in Quebec and in the West there was spontaneous, universal, aggressive approval of the determination of the Government to employ all the country's manhood and resources in the great struggle which the Mother Country could not escape, but in which Canada could become involved only by the free decision of its own Parliament. When war was actually declared the Governor General in a

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unequivocal language the moral obligation of the Dominions to support the Mother Country at any cost of blood or treasure and concluded with these eloquent sentences, "In an hour when such peril confronts us as this Empire has not faced for a hundred years, every vain or unnecessary word seems a discord. As to our duty, all are agreed. We stand shoulder to shoulder with Britain and the other Dominions in this quarrel. And that duty we shall not fail to fulfill as the honor of Canada demands. Not for love of battle, not for lust of conquest, not for greed of possessions, but for the cause of honor, to maintain solemn pledges, to uphold principles of liberty, to withstand forces that would convert the world into an armed camp; yea, in the very name of the peace that we sought at any cost save that of dishonor we have entered into this war; and while gravely conscious of the tremendous issues involved and of all the sacrifices that they may entail, we do not shrink from them, but with firm hearts we abide the event."

In Canada as in other countries when the war began the chief immediate concern was to maintain confidence and credit. Between 1900 and 1914 the Dominion had borrowed over \$1,200,000,000 in Great Britain and \$400,000,000 in the United States. These huge amounts were invested chiefly in railway, municipal and corporation securities. The Canadian Northern Transcontinental Railway System and the Grand Trunk Pacific System in Western Canada, as has been said, were only approaching completion and were still dependent upon public support. The roads had been constructed chiefly by federal and Provincial guarantees. Neither had revenues equal to interest charges and cost of operation. With the financial fabric of the world in chaos their position became desperate and in their solvency was involved the credit of the Dominion. There was also a sudden stoppage of the supply of capital for many federal, Provincial, municipal and corporate enterprises.

HEAVY INCREASE OF TAXATION IS AUTHORIZED BY PARLIAMENT.

At once bank notes were made legal tender. The banks were authorized to issue Dominion notes against approved securities and to make payments in notes instead of in gold.



THE LATE RT. HON. SIR WILFRID LAURIER

Sir Wilfrid Laurier became leader of the Liberal Party in 1891. He held the premiership of Canada 1896-1911, the first French-Canadian to hold that post.

The Department of Finance also took authority to enlarge the issue of Dominion notes unprotected by gold reserves. Thus during the first two or three months of the war additional currency to the amount of \$15,000,000 was provided. Customs duties were increased by 5 per cent on imports from Great Britain and by 7½ per cent on imports from foreign countries, and postal charges from one to two cents for drop letters and from two to three cents on letters for general distribution. In 1916 a levy upon the excess profits of industrial, commercial

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SIR THOMAS WHITE
Minister of Finance from 1911 to 1919.

and financial companies was authorized and in 1917 individual incomes were subjected to taxation. On incorporated companies with a capital of \$50,000 and over the profits tax was fixed at the rate of 25 per cent on profits between 7 and 15 per cent. with 50 per cent added on profits between 15 and 20 per cent and 75 per cent on profits over 20 per cent. On companies not assessable under the profits tax ten per cent on all net income in excess of \$2,000 was imposed.

Individual incomes were taxed four per cent up to \$6,000 with graduated exemptions, and eight per cent over \$6,000 with supplementary levies by graduated surtaxes running from one per cent to 65 per cent. From business profits taxation the return for 1916-17 was \$12,506,516, for 1917-18 \$21,271,083, and for 1918-19 \$32,970,061. For 1919-20 the estimate is \$44,000,000. The yield of the income taxes for 1918-19 was \$9,349,719 and for 1919-20 the estimate is \$25,000,000. The total war revenue, including, taxes on banks, loan and trust companies, business

profits and income, with returns from the Department of Inland Revenue, for 1914-15 was \$98,056, for 1915-16 \$3,620,781, for 1916-17 \$16,302,238, for 1917-18 \$25,379,900, and for 1918-19 \$56,179,508. The estimate for 1919-20 is \$81,000,000; or a total of \$182,578,485.

THE WAR LOANS ARE LARGELY OVER-SUBSCRIBED.

During the first year of the war the Department of Finance in order to protect the gold supply borrowed, first in London and then in New York. In all \$130,000,000 of Provincial, municipal and other bonds were marketed. Of this amount \$19,000,000 were placed in Canada, over \$85,000,000 in the United States and \$25,000,000 in the United Kingdom. Towards the close of 1915 the Finance Minister became convinced that a domestic war loan could be issued. He asked for \$50,000,000 but \$110,000,000 were subscribed of which the Treasury accepted \$100,000,000. Other domestic



SIR GEORGE FOSTER

Has had a long and distinguished record in Canadian politics, and during the war did great service in speeding up Victory Loans and stimulating other patriotic movements.

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loans followed from year to year, and always the amount required was exceeded. For the Victory Loan of 1919 the minimum fixed by the Government was \$300,000,000 but \$690,000,000 were subscribed. This notwithstanding that the bonds, unlike those issued during the war, were subject to taxation. Altogether \$1,800,000,000 have been raised by domestic loans and

000,000 exports. It will thus appear that from an adverse balance of \$300,000,000 in 1913 and of \$160,000,000 in 1914 we had attained a favorable balance of over \$600,000,000 in 1918 and of \$340,000,000 for 1919. At the end of the five-year period from 1914 to 1919, our total trade had doubled, while for the year 1918, which marked the highest point, it aggregated 2½



FOOD FOR THE CANNON

Basic steel, the only kind of steel made in Canada, was found by experiment to be suitable for the manufacture of shells. Under the Imperial Munitions Board the Purchasing and Steel Department bought all material entering into munitions, arranged for the forging of steel, and distributed the forgings and component parts to the machining plants situated in the various provinces.

from the bonds thus issued the holders will derive annually a total income of nearly \$100,000,000.

In his financial statement of 1919 Sir Thomas White, Minister of Finance, said: — "In 1913 the balance of trade against us was \$300,000,000. In 1914 our total international trade was \$1,073,000,000, of which \$618,000,000 was in imports and \$455,000,000 in exports. For 1918 the total was \$2,550,000,000, of which \$962,000,000 was imports and \$1,586,000,000 exports. For 1919 the unrevised figures show a total of \$2,169,000,000, of which \$916,000,000 was imports and \$1,253,-

times the trade of 1914." The debt, however, has increased from \$336,000,000 to \$2,000,000,000 and the total war expenditure is estimated at \$1,640,000,000. Before the war the annual expenditure ran from \$170,000,000 to \$175,000,000 but the main estimates for 1920 total \$500,000,000 and probably the supplementary estimates will increase the amount by \$5,000,000 or \$10,000,000. The revenue is estimated at \$365,000,000. Fixed charges represent \$159,743,000, of which \$142,281,000 are required for interest on the public debt and \$47,000,000 for deficits, maturing obligations, con-

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struction and betterments on the national railways.

NATIVES OF THE BRITISH ISLES RUSH TO ENLIST.

When the war began no one foresaw the demand that would arise for Canadian products and for production of munitions in Canadian factories. Even during the last months of 1914 unemployment was greatly reduced if not wholly overcome by enlistment in the expeditionary regiments. Nothing was more remarkable than the immediate response of thousands of British workmen and even of British farmers to the call for recruits. It is estimated that sixty or seventy per cent of the soldiers in the first regiments to leave Quebec were natives of the British Islands. All across the Western plains and in all the industrial communities of the older Provinces they offered themselves in thousands on the instant, definite conviction that whatever might be the attitude of native Canadians they could neither hesitate nor reason when the Old Country was in danger. The example, although no example was needed, emphasized the solemn gravity of the conflict into which Canada had entered. If there were those in Canada who had thought that Englishmen were "difficult" as settlers and workmen they bowed their heads in reverence for the spirit which they displayed when their Mother Country was threatened. But if enlistment relieved unemployment it was munition contracts which set the wheels of the factories running, inspired public confidence and enabled the country to subscribe hundreds of millions to war loans and provide credits for British purchases in the Dominion.

SHOULD CANADIAN FIRMS ATTEMPT TO MAKE MUNITIONS?

From the first Sir Robert Borden and Sir Sam Hughes, Minister of Militia, urged the War Office to place contracts for munitions with Canadian factories. But the War Office was reluctant and even many Canadian manufacturers doubted if they should take such contracts even if they could be obtained. No shells had ever been made in Canada. There was no general

confidence that the factories could be adjusted to the production of munitions. There was fear that the skilled labor required would not be available. Indeed the first contracts were taken not with expectation of profit, but in order to employ labor and in response to the very urgent appeals of the Government.

These contracts were placed by a Canadian Shell Committee but this organization was succeeded by an Imperial Munitions Board, of which Sir Joseph Flavelle was chairman, and which was directly responsible to the Imperial authorities. Through this Board there was produced and shipped to the British Government 65,340,000 shells, 45,000,000 cartridge cases, immense quantities of primers, friction tubes, fuses, copper bands and forgings of various types, 41,000,000 pounds of high explosive, 50,000,000 pounds of powder, 8,000,000 pounds of acetone, 10,000,000 pounds of acetic acid, 2,250,000 pounds of acetate of lime, 35,400,000 pounds of zinc, 18,500,000 pounds of calcium carbide, 2,000,000 pounds of nickel, 8,200,000 pounds of ferro silicon, 23,800,000 feet of aeroplane spruce, 36,000,000 feet of spruce deals and Douglas firs, 11,800,000 pounds of pulp board, 626,000 pounds of leather, 300,000 feet of leather belt, 4,000,000 pounds of asbestos, flax-pulling machines exceeding \$1,000,000 in value, over a thousand typewriters, railway waggons to the value of \$7,000,000, forty locomotives and forty-six wooden and forty-four steel vessels, aggregating 350,000 tons and costing \$70,000,000. The Board also produced 3,000 aeroplanes, with spare parts, which cost with the incidental expenditure upon training camps of the Royal Air Force over \$15,000,000. All these machines were used in Canada except one thousand, which were sold to the United States for training pilots. The total value of the orders received exceeded \$1,300,000,000 and the actual expenditure was over \$1,100,000,000.

PLANTS ESTABLISHED BY THE IMPERIAL MUNITIONS BOARD.

The Board also established a series of national plants: one in Montreal for

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the loading of fuses, upon which over \$2,000,000 was expended; one in Trenton for the production of powder and TNT, which cost \$5,000,000; one near Parry Sound, for the production of cordite, at a cost of \$4,000,000; one in Toronto, for the production of steel and forgings, upon which \$3,000,000 was expended; and another plant in Toronto for the production of aero-

At the time of the Armistice, the production of aeroplane spruce in the Dominion represented sixty per cent of the required quantity. The Board acted in Canada primarily for the Ministry of Munitions, and was directly responsible to the Imperial Minister. During the course of the war, the War Department, Navy Department, Timber Comptroller's Department and



HELPING TO WIN THE WAR

Women working in a Toronto munitions plant, photographed in front of the factory just before starting their work. Canada manufactured every type of shell from the 18-pounder to the 9.2-inch. The first shipment of shells from Canada was made in the month of December, 1914, and by the end of May, 1915, approximately four hundred establishments in Canada were engaged in the manufacture of shells or their component parts.

planes, which involved an outlay of \$1,300,000. Over \$1,000,000 was also expended upon the Gooderham Distillery at Toronto, for the production of acetone. These national plants were organized as separate companies, all the share capital was owned by the Crown, and all were under the direction of business men who volunteered for the service.

In 1917, the production of complete rounds of shrapnel shells in Canada represented fifty-five per cent of the requirements of Great Britain. The shells were shipped direct to France and ready for use in 18-pounder field guns.

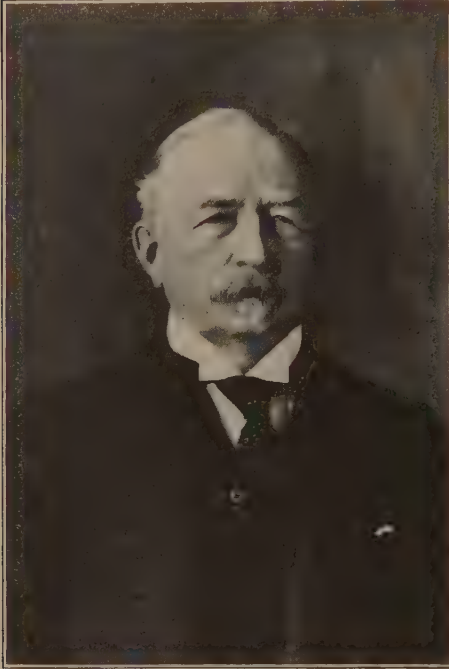
Ministry of Shipping made use of the Board's organization for services they required in Canada.

MUNITIONS MANUFACTURED FOR THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT.

The Board also acted as agent for the United States Government in placing orders for munitions, to be produced in Canada, for the American armies. Such orders placed with Canadian manufacturers exceeded a total value of \$200,000,000, and subsequently in settling claims arising out of the cancellation of many of these contracts at the termination of the war the Board was associated with officers of the

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American Government. It is freely admitted that Sir Joseph Flavelle and his associates displayed extraordinary courage, resource and efficiency in discharge of the tremendous responsibilities they had to carry. The story of their achievements constitutes one



BARON SHAUGHNESSY, K. C. V. O.

A recent portrait of Baron Shaughnessy, president of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, and of a number of other railways connected with the C.P.R.

of the finest chapters of the war in Canada and in the Empire. Nor was there any taint of irregularity or scandal to diminish the splendor of the great work they performed.

WAR SERVICES OF THE CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY.

Imposing and impressive is the story of the war services of the Canadian Pacific Railway. From its various departments 7,500 men enlisted. Of these over 500 were killed in action and 1,695 were among the casualties. In loans and guarantees to the Allied nations the Company gave \$80,000,000. It gave millions to the Patriotic Fund and subscribed heavily to war loans. To the Transport Service it virtually handed over a fleet of thirty-seven

ocean steamships. Its great plants were devoted to the manufacture of munitions and war supplies. It provided commissary cars for the soldiers and hospital cars for the wounded. It gave a six-months' bonus to all its employees who enlisted, all who returned were re-employed, and many other veterans taken into the Company's services. It gave reductions from 25 cents to 5 cents a word for cable messages between the soldiers and their families. When war broke out and serious unemployment threatened the Company undertook to find places for 6,000 additional workers. It has set apart ten thousand farms of 160 acres each, built a thousand barns and dwellings, dug a thousand wells, and erected 1,300 miles of fencing in Western territory to be occupied by returned soldiers. Throughout the war many of its executive officers, its experts in railway construction, its master mechanics and bridge builders were released for service with the War Department. As with the Imperial Munitions Board, so with the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, all its activities were distinguished by foresight, courage, and efficiency and inspired by complete devotion to the great cause which was the common and supreme concern.

THE ACCOMPLISHMENT OF THE CANADIAN SHIPYARDS.

Since 1915 Canadian shipyards have produced 1,000,000 tons of shipping. Aside from the vessels constructed for the Imperial Munitions Board a commercial fleet of 170,000 tons has been built for the Dominion Government, for France a tonnage of 250,000 was provided and for other countries of 90,000. For Great Britain 600 small vessels of an aggregate tonnage of 100,000 were constructed. In all, during the four years Canadian shipyards built for the Canadian and Allied Governments no fewer than 900 vessels, and Canada sold ships to other countries to a total value of \$65,000,000. In the shipyards 23,000 workers were employed and in Allied industries over 20,000. For 1919 in these industries \$40,000,000 was paid in wages and salaries. The Dominion emerges from

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the war with a fleet of vessels which will be operated in connection with the Canadian national railway system.

THE SERVICES OF VARIOUS ORGANIZATIONS, AND INDIVIDUAL CITIZENS.

Many pages would be required for any adequate account of the organizations created and the voluntary services performed by individuals and groups of citizens in association with the Government and the Army between 1914 and the demobilization of the forces. Sir Charles Gordon of Montreal

for 9,000,000 people, and out of which a country that had no other thought before the war than to borrow abroad provided credits of \$909,000,000 to Great Britain. Against this amount, however, stands \$600,000,000 advanced by Great Britain for the maintenance of Canadian troops overseas.

HOW CANADA HELPED TO PRODUCE AND SAVE FOOD.

Although there was no absolute or general fixation of the prices of food products the Canada Food Board,



SHIPBUILDING ON CANADA'S PACIFIC COAST

The war gave an impetus to shipbuilding in Canada both at ocean ports and on the Great Lakes. This industry did not come to an end with the signing of the Armistice but is making good some of the enormous losses sustained by all countries during the great struggle. The photograph is of J. Coughlan and Son's plant at Vancouver.

and Sir James Woods of Toronto held very responsible Imperial appointments at Washington and New York. Mr. Lloyd Harris of Brantford, as Chairman of the Canadian War Board at Washington, secured many contracts for Canadian factories and was influential in negotiations for exchange of necessary war materials between the two countries. A Federal Trade Board at Ottawa, whose members gave voluntary service, was an important agency in the distribution and execution of contracts for war supplies. The Banks gave invaluable assistance to the Government and to all war industries. Leaders in finance and in business united with singular energy in all the national organizations which, under the direction of the Minister of Finance, raised war loans of surprising magnitude

which was organized by Hon. W. J. Hanna of Toronto and after his resignation directed by Mr. H. B. Thomson of British Columbia, assisted materially in regulating consumption and increasing production. A rationing system was applied to public eating places. Millers were required to lengthen the extraction of wheat, bakers were restricted in the uses of fats and sugar and the supply of sugar to all manufacturers was strictly controlled. A great saving of meats for shipment overseas was effected by encouraging consumption of fish in Canada. Atlantic haddock, cod, mackerel and herring, through fast and direct freight services, were made available at low prices in the markets of Ontario and Quebec, while in the Western Provinces a demand was created for flat fish and

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cods from the Pacific. So the fish resources of the Lakes were utilized to a far greater extent than ever before. The profits of flour mills and provision houses were regulated. In 1917 a maximum price of \$2.21 per bushel for wheat was established. For 1918 the fixed price was \$2.24½ and for 1919 \$2.15 with participation certificates which will exceed 40 cents in value and may give the farmers an additional 50 cents per bushel.

farm work. Much of this labor was unskilled, and there was an admitted scarcity of farm workers before the war, but despite the heavy enlistments in the army production was not only maintained but substantially increased. Moreover, from the activities of the Food Board there have been valuable permanent results. The fisheries have been stimulated and the efficiency of food handling and food manufacturing industries has been enhanced. The



HARVESTING ON THE PRAIRIES

As the result of a conference between the Government and buyers and sellers of grain, the Board of Grain Supervisors was created in June, 1917. This body not only regulated the price at which grain should be bought and sold but also its distribution to the best advantage of the producers, the consuming public and overseas purchasers.

All pictures from British and Colonial Press.

The chief object of the Food Board, however, was to effect voluntary economies and to increase production. This was accomplished by organized appeal, by extensive display advertising, by co-operation with the Provincial Departments of Agriculture, and by distribution of tractors at low cost to farmers. Provincial Resources Committees were formed in the Provinces, upon which the farmers and leaders of labor were represented. Workmen from the factories were released for the harvest. High School students were enrolled as farm workers and many young women from the universities and the towns and cities assisted in the orchards, in berry picking and in other light field and

farmers in all the Provinces responded loyally to the Board's appeals and adapted production as was required to feed the army and supply the products needed to relieve scarcity in Great Britain and in Europe.

THE ATTITUDE OF CANADIAN LABOR TOWARD THE WAR.

The attitude of industrial workers throughout the war, aside from the issue of conscription, was not distinguishable from that of other elements of the population. In 1914 the Dominion Trades and Labor Congress approved the intervention of Canada in the war, but pronounced definitely and unequivocally against conscription. This position was maintained when conscription



FARMERETTES AT ONTARIO AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, GUELPH

Women commenced to take a share in agricultural work early in the war and worked on farms in all parts of the country. At first their work was mostly fruitpicking, but as the agricultural colleges put in various courses women qualified for all the branches of men's work around the farm.

British and Colonial Press.



GIRLS' CLASS IN GAS ENGINEERING, MANITOBA AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE

These are farmers' daughters from all parts of Manitoba who are studying running, dissembling, assembling and repairing of gas engines, to be of help in seeding and harvesting operations on the farms and incidentally assist in the production of more foodstuffs. The girls in the foreground are taking to pieces an engine model supplied for the purpose; others in the background are connecting batteries and learning to start engines.



A LEADER IN WOMEN'S MOVEMENTS

A prominent worker in all departments of women's work in the Dominion, Mrs. L. A. Hamilton, spared neither strength nor money to help win the war.
British and Colonial Press.

was actually adopted, although disapproval of organized action by the workers to resist the law was expressed. It was urged, however, that with conscription of men there should also be conscription of wealth, that the Military Service Act should not go into effect until the country had been consulted in a general election, and that if rejected, immediate repeal should follow.

In the coal mines of British Columbia and Alberta repeated strikes greatly reduced production. In the mining district of Northern Ontario there was unrest and steady pressure for higher wages. Strikes of longshoremen at Vancouver and of elevator workers at Port Arthur and Fort William interfered with shipments of wheat and supplies for the Army. But in the Western mining districts and in the gold and silver camps of Northern Ontario there are alien and Socialistic elements, associated with the I.W.W.'s and other revolutionary groups, which have never been wholly subject to the responsible

leaders of organized Labor in Canada. Generally, however, Labor co-operated with the Government in voluntary recruiting, in relief and patriotic movements, and in the organization of national, Provincial and local committees to raise the war loans; with manufacturers in production of munitions and war supplies; and with the railways to assure uninterrupted transportation. In short, the leaders of Labor exerted their full authority to prevent industrial conflict, to restrain extremists and to prevent untimely agitation. It is estimated that 22,000 organized and 130,000 unorganized workers enlisted in the Canadian regiments and altogether Labor gave devoted and effective support to the war effort of the nation.

THE WORK OF CANADIAN WOMEN IN THE WAR.

From the first, the women of the country gave themselves with extraordinary zeal and devotion to war objects. The Imperial Order of the Daughters of the Empire raised over \$1,000,000 for patriotic purposes. The National Council of Women of Canada placed 100,000 placards urging food conservation in shops and factories throughout the country. The Women's Branches of the Western Grain Growers' Associations, the United Farm Women of Alberta, and the Farm Women's Institutes of Ontario and the Western Provinces raised many thousands of dollars for relief and patriotic purposes. A multitude of women's organizations were active in Red Cross work, and in regular shipment of supplies to the soldiers and to hospitals in England, in France, in Belgium, in Serbia, and in Mesopotamia. There was a women's association to supply nurses, Women's Thrift Committees and women's organizations to provide supplies for the navy. Every regiment oversea had an auxiliary women's association at home through which supplies were sent to the men in the trenches, in hospitals, in German prisons or in training in England.

The churches had like associations and the universities were centres of recruiting, of medical and hospital or-

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ganization, and of inspiration to service and sacrifice. No other agencies indeed, than the universities and pulpits, were more influential in developing and maintaining a resolute temper in the country and in reconciling all elements of the people to exertion and endurance, to the cruel strain of indecisive battles, the long roll of casualties, the agony of losses. In recognition of the efficiency

379. Of this amount the Mennonites, who settled in Canada under a guarantee of exemption from military service, contributed \$5,705. In a few municipalities and one or two of the Provinces the money was raised by taxation but the bulk of the amount was secured by voluntary subscription. Nearly \$41,000,000 has been distributed, chiefly to the dependents of private soldiers.



RED CROSS WORKERS IN TORONTO

Every church, social club, and organization in Canada at once offered its services to the central Red Cross, and undertook whatever work was most needed for the many and varying needs of hospital work at home and abroad. Many of these societies were open every day through the winter, and in summer organized at different resorts.

of women equal suffrage, which was not established in any Province of Canada when the war began, now prevails in all the Provinces but Quebec. So women in all the Provinces, including Quebec, have the franchise in federal elections. The power of the churches in the war was expressed in prohibition of the liquor traffic in all the Provinces but Quebec, and even in the French Province only wine and beer licenses are now issued.

CANADA'S CONTRIBUTION FOR THE RELIEF OF SUFFERING.

The Patriotic Fund, collected to provide allowances for the dependents of soldiers, reached a total of \$48,481,-

There is still a bank balance to the credit of the association of \$7,236,205. Over two thousand physicians and 1,500 dentists served the army at home or abroad. The Canadian Dental Corps was the first to be established by any country and was described as "one of the best steps taken by the Canadian Government." Canada maintained sixteen field ambulances with the Canadian forces; seven general hospitals, five in France and two in Greece; seven stationary hospitals, one in Greece, three in France and three in England; four casualty clearing stations, three in France and one in England; and administered altogether 27 hospitals



A WORKER FOR THE BELGIAN RELIEF

Mrs. Clarence I. de Sola of Montreal was given the order of Queen Elizabeth of Belgium, in recognition of her devoted work for the Belgians.

Photo British and Colonial Press.

abroad all of which were manned by Canadian physicians and nurses.

To the Canadian Red Cross Society Canada gave nearly \$8,000,000 in cash and over \$13,000,000 in supplies; to the British Red Cross over \$6,000,000; to the Belgian Relief Fund \$1,642,000 in cash and \$1,512,000 in supplies; and to the military work of the Young Men's Christian Association \$4,575,000. The Dominion and Provincial Governments gave gifts of flour, oats, potatoes and other foodstuffs to Great Britain to the value of \$5,469,000. Gifts to the French, Serbian and Polish Relief funds, for equipment and maintenance of hospitals or field comforts for troops oversea and returned soldiers and for various other objects, totalled \$8,000,000. It is estimated that the total of voluntary contributions from Canada for war purposes exceeded \$95,000,000.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE FOR THE RETURNED SOLDIER.

Only the United States of all countries engaged in the war has a scale of

pensions as liberal as that of Canada. In 1915 the pension for a totally disabled single man was fixed at \$264. In 1916 this amount was increased to \$480. There was a further increase in 1917 to \$600, while in 1918 the allowance was raised by means of a bonus to \$720. There have been proportionate increases to those not wholly disabled and to wives, widows and children. In 1919, 175,000 persons were in receipt of pensions. Of these 70,950 were disabled soldiers, 27,649 wives of disabled soldiers, 58,582 children of disabled and widows of deceased soldiers, and 17,725 widows and mothers or other relations of deceased soldiers. The total payment for pensions for the year ending March 21st, 1917, was \$1,791,566, for 1918 \$7,402,253, for 1919, \$16,589,021 and for 1920 \$23,824,265, or a total of \$49,607,055. The expenditures for re-establishment have totalled many millions and it is generally admitted that the departments concerned in fitting partially disabled soldiers for civil pursuits in which they can earn wages and recover and maintain their personal independence have been singularly efficient.

So remarkable success has attended the effort of the Government to establish soldiers in agriculture. Allowances are granted for purchase of land of \$5,000, for stock and implements of \$2,000 and for building material and permanent improvements of \$1,000. Interest on unpaid balances is fixed at 5 per cent and repayment of the total advances is required in 25 annual instalments. Down to March 27th, 1920, the Land Settlement Board had approved loans to the amount of \$58,741,605. In all over 50,000 applications have been received from soldiers who desire to go upon the land, and of these 36,000 have been approved. The average loan for each settler is \$3,700. Estimates of the Land Settlement Board for 1920-21 total \$56,017,000.

THE QUESTION OF PENSIONS NOT CLOUD-ED BY PARTISAN CONSIDERATIONS.

The Great War Veterans' Associations are demanding additional cash bonuses for all returned soldiers, running from \$1,000 to \$2,500, according to length

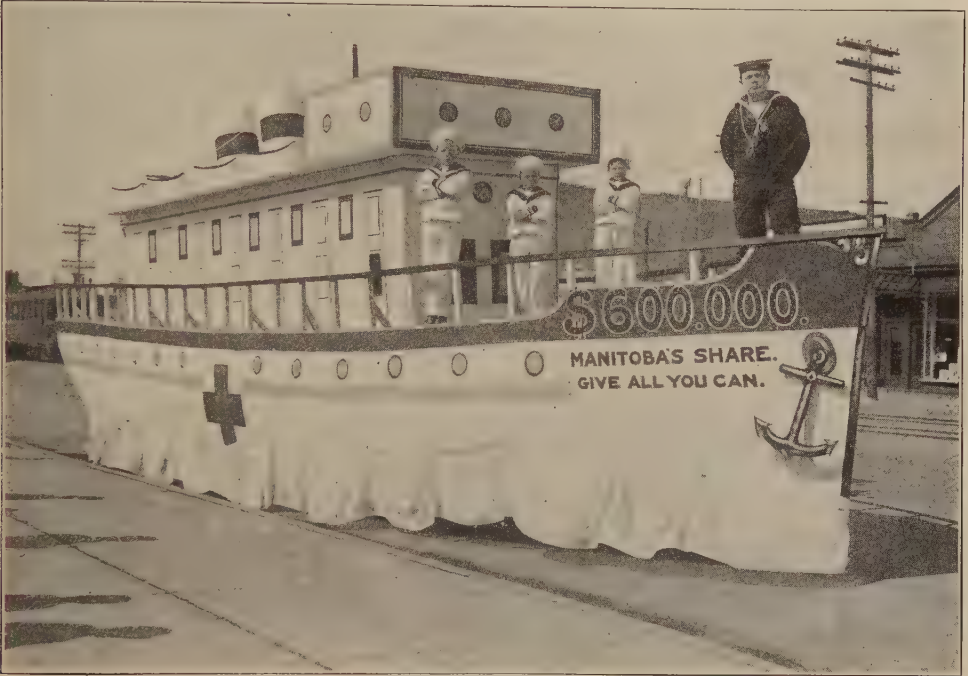
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and conditions of service, but the Government has definitely intimated that the demand cannot be conceded. It is estimated by the Veterans that the total amount required to give such bonuses would be \$250,000,000 but the Government holds that the total charge would be between \$500,000,000 and \$800,000,000. It is expected, however, that in special cases additional bonuses

ous as the condition of the finances will permit, and as yet there is a universal public opinion behind all the legislation for their benefit which Parliament has enacted.

THE POLITICAL TRUCE IN PARLIAMENT IS FINALLY BROKEN.

There was no such observance of the "political truce" as was anticipated from the spirit displayed in the first war



GIVE ALL YOU CAN

The T. Eaton Float in a big Red Cross Parade in Winnipeg. The ship represents the sunken Hospital ship "Ewan" which was torpedoed by a German submarine, although fully marked with the signs of her calling. The sailor on deck is not masquerading but an ex-navy service man, having a medal and two stripes to his credit.

will be granted and that pensions to widowed mothers with children will be increased. From the first, pensions have been considered by a select committee representing all parties in Parliament. Its recommendations have been unanimous and have been accepted with few changes by the Government and by the House of Commons and Senate. The clear and wise object is to avoid partisan competition and conflict over the country's duty and obligation to the soldiers. It is recognized that their services and sacrifices can receive no adequate recognition or reward. But the country demands provision for the soldiers and their dependents as gener-

session of Parliament. Before the war the country had been greatly divided over proposals to assist in the naval defence of the Empire. In 1910 the Laurier Government had asked Parliament to sanction the organization of the nucleus of a Canadian navy. It was provided that the vessels should be built in Canada, and that the fleet should be under the absolute control of the Canadian Government. In 1909 Parliament had unanimously declared in favor of a Canadian navy and there was, therefore, every reason to expect that the Laurier programme would have the support of the Conservative Opposition. But a wing of the Con-

servative party insisted that the programme was inadequate, the extreme French element of Quebec, under Mr. Henri Bourassa, organized an inflammatory agitation in that Province against any appropriation for naval defense, and gradually the Conservative representation in Parliament was consolidated against the proposals of the Government. Hon. F. D. Monk, French Conservative leader in the House of Commons, joined Mr. Bourassa in organizing and energizing the Nationalist agitation in Quebec, although in 1909 he had supported the joint Parliamentary resolution in favor of a Canadian navy.

Quebec has produced few men of greater genius for popular agitation than Mr. Bourassa. While he sat in the House of Commons he was perhaps its most brilliant orator, whether he spoke in French or English, and he was even more effective on the platform. He had resigned his seat in Parliament in protest against participation by Canada in the war in South Africa and had established an organ whose chief mission was to resist all Imperial projects and maintain the claims and pretensions of the Ultramontane element among the Roman Catholic Hierarchy. Excited by the passionate appeals of Bourassa, the sober, deliberate reasoning of Monk, and the extreme utterances of a group of the younger Quebec politicians, a multitude of French-Canadians were convinced that the naval proposals revealed a conspiracy, inspired from England, to destroy self-government in Canada and involve the Dominion in the quarrels of the Empire in Europe.

THE BITTER DISCUSSION OVER A CANADIAN NAVY.

In the general election of 1911 in which a reciprocal trade agreement with the United States was the chief issue, the Nationalists united with the Conservatives of the English Provinces and overthrew the Laurier Administration. But while Reciprocity was the issue in the English Provinces, in Quebec the Nationalists directed their whole attack against Laurier's naval proposals. It may be that between the Conservatives and the Nationalists there was no

actual alliance but there was co-operation which wrested a score of constituencies from the Liberal party. When Sir Robert Borden formed his Government three Nationalists, representing a solid French *bloc*, were included. One of these was Monk, who had deserted the Conservative party in order to assist the Nationalist agitation in Quebec. This practical evidence of an alliance between French Nationalists and Conservative Imperialists excited bitter resentment among Liberals and goes far to explain the desperate resistance of the Liberal party to the emergency naval programme which, after consultation with the Imperial Government, Borden submitted to Parliament. Substantially the Conservative Government proposed to build three Dreadnoughts for the Royal Navy to constitute an integral portion of the British fleet until Canada should evolve a definite permanent naval policy, when they would be subject to recall if the final decision should be in favor of a Canadian navy rather than a central navy under common Imperial control. After weeks of angry and bitter obstruction and the final adoption of a system of closure for the Canadian Parliament, the proposals were carried in the House of Commons but were rejected by the Senate where the Liberal party commanded a majority.

THE GERMAN MENACE LONG UNRECOGNIZED IN CANADA.

During the tumultuous naval debates there was much denunciation of the suspected designs of British Imperialists, strenuous protests against "contribution" and "centralization" and an alliance in sympathy but not in action between Quebec Nationalists and the Liberal party which had suffered so sorely from Nationalist attacks in the general election. With the Nationalists Laurier would have no co-operation. Bourassa and his allies he never ceased to denounce while he lived. But during the naval controversy he insisted again and again that there was no "emergency" before the British Empire, that Germany desired only good relations with Great Britain, and that the German Emperor was a bulwark of peace in

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Europe. This was the situation in Canada when war came and Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberal party were obliged to admit that they had misunderstood Germany and were required to co-operate with the Conservative Government in all measures necessary to create an army, provide for its support, and place the country generally upon a war basis.

appointments, however, there was no discrimination against Liberals, nor was there any preference for Conservatives in the constitution of Relief and Patriotic organizations.

If there was no movement in the first years of the war to admit Liberals to the Cabinet it must also be stated that there was no demand from the Liberal press or the Liberal parliamentary



THE LARGEST POSTER EVER MADE

This poster was put up in Montreal, facing Victoria Square, and some estimate of its size can be obtained by comparing it with the automobile and man standing before it. It was difficult to overlook, and hard to get away from the accusing finger and eye. Montreal held a distinguished place in each of the loans.

NO EARLY SUGGESTION OF A COALITION MINISTRY.

For twelve months, however, there was co-operation between the parties in Parliament for all war and patriotic objects. But in a section of the Conservative press there was frequent attack upon Laurier and provocative resurrection of his pre-war utterances. There was no thought of a coalition Government such as was established in Great Britain, nor any disposition among the Conservative leaders to associate Liberals with the conduct of the war or to relax in any degree the strictest ministerial control over expenditures and patronage. In military

party for any partnership in the responsibilities of government. It has been said that Sir Wilfrid Laurier would have agreed to enter a coalition if he had received such a proposal from the Prime Minister in 1914 or 1915, but if this be true the fact was not suspected nor is there any reason to believe that Conservative ministers would have joined forces with the Liberal leaders even if they had been convinced that proposals for a coalition would be entertained.

DIVISION UPON SUBJECTS NOT CONNECTED WITH THE WAR.

So upon all questions not actually related to the prosecution of the war the

parties divided according to pre-war prejudices, preferences and convictions. There was, therefore, throughout the war an atmosphere of partisan conflict in Canada, a disposition among leaders of the Liberal party to turn every untoward incident to political account, and a manifest desire among Conservative leaders to interpret Liberal criticism as dictated only by partisan considerations. The masses of the people, however, resented every symptom of political warfare and thought only of the war and the high necessity of union and co-operation in order that the participation of Canada in the conflict should be effective.

For this reason the Government did not venture to order a general election. In 1915 and again in 1916 ministers had definitely decided to appeal to the constituencies. Five years is the legal and constitutional life of a Canadian Parliament. A general election was held in 1911 and thus in 1916 the mandate from the people was exhausted. It is the custom to dissolve Parliament at least twelve months before dissolution becomes imperative. Notwithstanding the provision of the constitution four rather than five years represents the actual average life of Parliament in Canada. Under normal conditions, therefore, the Government would have sought a renewal of public confidence in the autumn of 1915 and certainly not later than the summer of 1916. But the Liberal party, clearly supported by public opinion, opposed a war election. Sir Wilfrid Laurier declared that although he was confident the Government could not survive an appeal to the country he was unwilling to open the portals of office with "a bloody key." The Liberal press was united, energetic and fervent in protest against any proposal to plunge the country into the bitterness and turmoil of a general election while Canadian soldiers were dying in the trenches and mourning and desolation pervaded thousands of Canadian households.

PUBLIC SENTIMENT OPPOSED TO A WAR ELECTION.

Patriotic and recruiting organizations joined in the protest and voices

from many pulpits pleaded for an agreement between the parties to extend the life of Parliament. In the Cabinet also there was division as apparently among Liberals there was less unanimity than was suggested by the attitude of the parliamentary party. It has since been stated that at the Liberal caucus which agreed to extension Sir Wilfrid Laurier submitted with reluctance to the decision of the majority. "I think it would be much better" he told the caucus "to stand on the solid bedrock of the constitution and to have elections as the constitution provides." A student of Lincoln as Laurier was, he probably had knowledge of Lincoln's speech from the White House when he was elected as President for a second term in the crisis of the Civil War. "We cannot have free government without elections," he declared "and if the rebellion could force us to forego or postpone a national election it might fairly claim to have already conquered and ruined us. The strife of the election is but human nature practically applied to the facts of the case. What has occurred in this case must ever recur in similar cases. Human nature will not change. In any future great national trial, compared with the men of this, we shall have as weak and as strong, as silly and as wise, as bad and as good. But the election, along with its incidental and undesirable strife has done good too. It has demonstrated that a people's government can sustain a national election in the midst of a great civil war. Until now, it has not been known to the world that this was a possibility."

In Canada, however, as in Great Britain, public feeling was resolutely against a war election and twice the Government submitted even against its own desire and judgment after a majority of the Cabinet had definitely determined to consult the people. There was this difference between the situation in Canada and in Great Britain. In the Mother Country Liberals, Unionists and the Labor party had united to form a Coalition Cabinet. In the Dominion government by party still prevailed. Moreover, the Opposi-

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tion would agree only to an extension of Parliament from year to year and thus there was always the temptation to manœuvre for party advantage and power in the Opposition at the termination of any agreement to force a general election.

CRITICISM OF THE CONDUCT OF THE WAR IS VARIED.

Even of the conduct of the war there was unceasing criticism. The distribution of shell contracts and the Ross rifle were special objects of attack. It was contended that the Ross rifle manufactured at Quebec was a sporting and not a military weapon, that it was too delicate for service in the trenches, and was unreliable and "jammed" in action. Ample evidence has accumulated that there was substance in these charges. It is certain that the Canadian weapon was unpopular with the Expeditionary Army. Many were abandoned in the field when British rifles could be secured as substitutes. Under attack and pressure of public feeling the Ross rifle finally was replaced by the Lee-Enfield and manufacture of the Canadian arm discontinued.

Into the charges that favorites of the Minister of Militia had profited improperly through shell contracts there was inquiry by a judicial commission and substantial vindication of the Minister. If the Minister was insubordinate and autocratic and later withdrew from the Government over differences with his colleagues it is admitted that he displayed remarkable energy and resource in organizing and equipping the first contingents and that no evidence of corruption in office ever was produced. There were acute differences also over railway policy and over methods of taxation. Unable to borrow in the United States or Great Britain the Canadian Northern Railway and the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway had to be assisted from the public treasury. A loan of \$45,000,000 to the first road was resisted by the Opposition as a concession to favorite capitalists upon inadequate security and they were joined in the debate and the division by Mr. R. B. Bennett of Calgary and Mr. W. F. Nickle of Kingston, among the most

influential Conservatives outside the Cabinet in Parliament. A motion by Mr. Nickle to abolish hereditary titles in Canada was supported by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who declared his readiness to make a bonfire of his own parchment, and by a formidable wing of Conservatives. An amendment to abolish all titles save those bestowed in recognition



HON. N. W. ROWELL

Who was leader of the Liberal Party in the Province of Ontario from 1911 to 1917, and as such has promoted an advanced programme of social legislation.

of war services was only defeated by the blunt and resolute statement of the Prime Minister that if the motion carried the Government would resign. Defeated for the moment, the proposal was renewed in a subsequent session during the absence of Sir Robert Borden in Paris and adopted by a substantial majority of Parliament. As has been said the Opposition strongly opposed increase of customs duties as a method of raising additional revenue and Sir Wilfrid Laurier himself was never wholly favorable to taxation of excess profits. But none of these issues greatly excited the country or cut down to the

roots of old political relationships as did the acute quarrel over conscription.

THE QUESTION OF CONSCRIPTION FINALLY BECOMES IMPORTANT.

There was no thought of a draft in Canada when the war began. Sir Robert Borden as leader of the Government and Sir Wilfrid Laurier as leader of the parliamentary Opposition declared again and again that compulsion

effect. There was no prospect of peace in the near future. There was no suggestion from any group or party that the strength of Canada in the field should be reduced. Even those who opposed the draft insisted that adequate reinforcements must be provided. It may be that compulsion would not have been applied if voluntary recruiting could have been main-



"EN ROUTE TO VICTORY"

This is a float supplied to a Victory Loan Drive parade in Toronto by the T. Eaton Company. In 1919 the Government asked for a subscription of \$300,000,000 but the loan was over-subscribed and \$690,000,000 was raised. Altogether during the war \$1,800,000,000 was obtained in Canada by domestic loans, but this amount does not include all of the national debt so heavily increased by annual war expenditure.

would not be employed. But from month to month and from year to year the call for men was continuous and insistent. When we had organized an army of 100,000 another 100,000 was required. When 200,000 men had enlisted there was an appeal for 300,000. When 350,000 had enrolled a Canadian contribution of 500,000 was authorized. By voluntary enlistment 437,000 were secured and by midsummer of 1917 322,000 of these had crossed the sea.

Thereafter appeal and persuasion ceased to bring any considerable response, although not wholly without

tained, but with comparative failure of voluntary recruiting the Government became convinced that there was no alternative. In the last phases of the voluntary system arguments were used and devices employed of dubious propriety and doubtful dignity.

THE MILITARY SERVICE BILL IS INTRODUCED.

Under these circumstances the Military Service Bill was submitted to Parliament and carried by 118 to 55. Nine Conservatives and 37 Liberals from Quebec voted against the Bill but the minority contained only 12 English speaking members from all the Prov-

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inces. In offering an amendment that "the further consideration of this Bill be deferred until the principle thereof has, by means of a Referendum, been submitted to and approved by the electors of Canada," Sir Wilfrid Laurier said, "Would anyone believe that if the Government had told us in 1916 that they contemplated introducing the new radical principle of conscription, Parliament would have been extended? When this Government asks this moribund Parliament to pass such a law as this, it is an abuse of the authority which has been placed in their hands by the people of Canada. Parliament has not been in touch with the country for two years and more, and it seems to me that this is an additional reason why we should not proceed with this Bill. There is in all the Provinces of this Dominion at the present moment amongst the working classes an opposition to this measure which is not wavering but which is becoming stronger every day. There is another class who have been strongly opposed to conscription and I must deal with them. I refer to the French Canadian portion of the population. I ask which is the course most conducive to success in the war — compulsion with irritation and bitterness and a sense of intolerance and injustice, or consultation with consequent union, and universal satisfaction all around. . . . What I propose is that we should have a referendum and a consultation of the people upon this question. When the verdict of the people has been given, there can be no further question, and everybody will have to submit to the law. I repeat the pledges I gave a moment ago on behalf of my own Province, that every man, even although he is to-day opposed to the law, shall do service as well as any man of any other race." Later developments showed, however, that the Liberal Party was not united.

LIBERAL REVOLT AGAINST THE LEADERSHIP OF SIR WILFRID LAURIER.

The Parliamentary division over conscription accentuated the revolt among Liberals in all the English Provinces against Sir Wilfrid Laurier's leadership. For some time such powerful Liberal journals as the *Toronto*



WOMEN WORKERS IN THE C. P. R. ROUNDHOUSE, TORONTO

A group of women engine-cleaners who made good in the war. Previous to their employment sixteen Japs had covered six engines per day. These eight women did eight engines per day. They began scraping off the grease, hosing out the tenders and polishing the nickel and brass.

Globe and the *Winnipeg Free Press* had been calling for a Union Government and the substitution of the Militia Act, which authorized conscription by ballot and which was adopted when Laurier was Premier, for the voluntary system of recruiting. These demands had the vehement support of Mr. N. W. Rowell, leader of the Liberal party in the Ontario Legislature, and other influential Liberals in the constituencies. It is not too much to say that the Liberal newspapers of the English Provinces were practically united in support of a

measure of compulsion and a Union Cabinet. A representative Convention of Western Liberals at Winnipeg, however, failed to pronounce in favor of conscription, substantially endorsed Laurier and unequivocally rejected Borden. But it soon became clear that except under Borden no coalition could be effected. A caucus of Conservative members of the Senate and House of Commons so intimated in language which the country could not misunderstand. Borden himself offered to withdraw in favor of Sir George Foster, whom it was directly intimated Western Liberals would accept, but to this neither Foster nor caucus would agree.

Thenceforward Borden set himself with patience and energy to the organization of a Union Cabinet. Naturally he first made direct advances to Sir Wilfrid Laurier. Substantially he proposed that the leader of the Liberal party should enter the Cabinet and select one half of its members. Laurier did not give an immediate answer although there never was any real prospect that he would accept. When he did reply it was in effect that he could not enter a coalition to enforce conscription and that he should have been consulted before the Military Service Act was forced through Parliament. Failing with Sir Wilfrid Laurier the Prime Minister turned to that section of the Liberal party which had supported conscription and been foremost in the agitation for a Union Government.

PUBLIC OPINION SWINGS TOWARD A UNION CABINET.

National Unity Conventions were held at Montreal and Toronto, many patriotic organizations adopted resolutions in support of conscription and union, and many of the Liberal newspapers became steadily more hostile to the position taken by the Liberal leaders. Gradually an irresistible movement of public opinion was developed and the Prime Minister immensely strengthened in the difficult task to which he had set himself. The Western Liberal leaders who had declared adhesion to Laurier at the Winnipeg Convention reconsidered their position and entered into direct negotiation

with Borden and other Conservative ministers. Very influential in the movement was Sir Clifford Sifton, one of the virile figures in Canadian affairs, who from the first had subordinated all other considerations to the war, and the *Winnipeg Free Press* which put all its power of persuasion, appeal and argument at the service of the Unionists. In Ontario also the *Toronto Globe* and the *Toronto Star*, reluctant as they were to separate from Sir Wilfrid Laurier, were hardly less effective in creating a public temper which could not be resisted.

LIBERAL REPRESENTATION IN THE CABINET AS FINALLY FORMED.

In the Union Cabinet as finally organized by Sir Robert Borden, there was a formidable Liberal representation. Among the ministers were Hon. N. W. Rowell, Liberal leader of Ontario, Hon. Arthur Sifton, Liberal Premier of Alberta, Hon. J. A. Calder, Minister of Public Works in the Liberal Government of Saskatchewan, Hon. T. A. Crerar of Manitoba, leader of the Western Grain Growers, Hon. A. K. Maclean of Nova Scotia, Hon. F. B. Carvell of New Brunswick, Hon. C. C. Ballantyne of Quebec and Hon. Hugh Guthrie and Hon. S. C. Newburn of Ontario. Of these only Mr. Carvell, Mr. Maclean and Mr. Guthrie had seats in the House of Commons. Whether or not Laurier exerted pressure upon his followers it is certain that few even of the Conscriptionist Liberals in Parliament could be persuaded to enter the Union Cabinet. Only two French Canadians had seats in the Government and both of these were defeated in the general election of December 1917 which followed its organization.

In the electoral contest conscription was the overshadowing issue alike in Quebec and in the English Provinces. But Quebec was with and the English Provinces against Laurier. In many of the speeches of Unionist candidates and in much of the Unionist literature there was denunciation of Quebec as hostile to conscription, slack in recruiting, and indifferent to the fortunes of the decimated regiments in France and Flanders. To racial feeling among the

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English-speaking people was added the emotional appeal for reinforcements for the army. The favorite slogans in English constituencies were, "Stand by the boys at the front" and "Shall Quebec govern Canada?"

THE RESULTS OF THE ELECTION SHOW PUBLIC OPINION.

Quebec bitterly resented these aspersions and attacks and settled more

Liberals and 22 Unionists. In Quebec, out of 65 seats only three Unionists were returned. Many Unionist majorities ran from 5,000 to 20,000 but the majorities for Liberal candidates in Quebec were not less decisive. The soldiers overseas, in England and in the field, and in camps in Canada voted overwhelmingly for the Government. The Unionists had a total majority over



HART HOUSE, TORONTO UNIVERSITY

Presented by the Massey family to Toronto University for the purpose of an undergraduate club house, Hart House, although not quite finished upon the outbreak of war was turned over to the Government that they might use its exceptional facilities for the recreation of soldiers. Here also were set up courses for the re-education of crippled soldiers. After the war it was returned to the University.

firmly and angrily into its established attitude of personal devotion to Laurier. The Liberal leader himself although in his seventy-sixth year displayed remarkable vigor and energy. He crossed the Dominion from Ottawa to Vancouver, speaking at all the chief centres, and always to great and apparently sympathetic audiences. But while it was made clear that there was a great reserve of affection among the Canadian people for an attractive and picturesque figure, the result demonstrated that personal regard could not be translated into political support. In all the West, Laurier carried only three seats out of 56 and only seven in Ontario. The Atlantic Provinces elected eight

the official Opposition of 362,000 and a plurality over Liberal, Labor and Independent candidates of 264,216. Of the military votes 206,626 were recorded in favor of the Government and 15,016 for opposing candidates.

THE OPERATIONS OF CONSCRIPTION CAUSE CONSIDERABLE IRRITATION.

There was no serious resistance to the draft in any portion of the Dominion. But there were evaders and deserters and subsequent prosecutions. Among farmers a good deal of exasperation and anger was produced. During the general election definite pledges were made by the Government that owing to the scarcity of farm labor and the urgent need of greater food production farm-

ers' sons would not be drafted. It was found, however, in Canada as in Great Britain that to exempt any class was impracticable. The prospect of exemption drew too many people to the land who had no connection, or thought of any connection, with agriculture until the draft was instituted. The military tribunals, therefore, ignored the Government's pledges, and thousands of farmers who had supported the Unionists strongly resented what they regarded as deliberate and wanton violation of a positive contract. In Quebec also, where conscription was so generally opposed, there is enduring resentment over the attacks during the contest upon the loyalty and patriotism of the French people. No candidate of the Government has since been elected in Quebec and all advances by Unionists are rejected. The Prime Minister was anxious to have greater French representation in the Cabinet but no candidate willing to take office under Sir Robert Borden could have been elected in a French constituency. It has to be said for the former Prime Minister, however, that he was ever conciliatory in his attitude towards the French Province and even during the general election abstained from any harsh or censorious utterance. But Quebec was devoted to Laurier and as yet will have no association with the political group which he opposed and the measures of policy which he resisted. His death ended a political era in Canada but there is reverence for his memory among Liberals equal to that which exists among Conservatives for the personality and achievements of Sir John Macdonald.

THE ALIEN ENEMIES IN CANADA DURING THE WAR.

Although there are over 600,000 Germans and Austrians in Canada they were so tractable throughout the war that only a few thousands were interned. In the West the vigilance of the Mounted Police gave an effective guarantee of order and security. In cases alien enemies were suspected of incendiarism and destruction of property but seldom was definite evidence to convict or even to justify suspicion obtained. In the

general election of 1917 Germans and Austrians who had not lived more than fifteen years in the Dominion were disfranchised. This legislation was vigorously opposed by the Liberal party and is still denounced as a fundamental violation of the right of citizenship.

VIGOROUS MEASURES FOR RECONSTRUCTION UNDERTAKEN.

In measures of reconstruction the Government has been vigorous and courageous. Over \$100,000,000 was provided for credits to Rumania, Greece, France and Belgium to purchase grain and manufactures in Canada, \$50,000,000 to Great Britain for timber supplies from British Columbia, \$25,000,000 to assist in the construction of inexpensive houses, \$10,000,000 for good roads, and \$500,000 is recommended for a National Scientific Institute at Ottawa. Manufactures were assisted through a Canadian Trade Commission in London to place export orders in foreign markets and the wheat crop satisfactorily marketed through a National Wheat Board which ensured the farmers \$2.55 a bushel for the crop of 1919. A Board of Commerce was also instituted to regulate prices of necessities, to restrict profiteering and to prevent illegal industrial combination with results not very different from those which usually attend such legislative experiments. The Government has acquired the Canadian Northern, Grand Trunk and Grand Trunk Pacific Railways, and now operates 22,000 miles of national railway extending from Windsor in the southern peninsula of Ontario to Vancouver and Prince Rupert on the Pacific.

Parliament has affirmed Canada's adhesion to the League of Nations and asserted the new national status of the Dominion in the determination to appoint an Ambassador to Washington. Indeed the war has vitally affected the constitutional position and the political outlook of Canada. Between 1914 and 1920 Sir Robert Borden was in close and continuous consultation with Imperial ministers. An Imperial War Cabinet was created to ensure understanding and co-operation between the Dominions and the Mother Country. An Oversea

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Minister of Militia represented Canada in London. Authority was taken by the Imperial Government to attach oversea ministers from the Dominions to the Imperial Cabinet. Sir Robert Borden and other Canadian delegates attended the Peace Conference and representatives of Canada signed the Peace Treaty. Henceforth the Dominion will be represented in the Assembly of Nations and in Imperial Conferences not as a subordinate colony but as an equal nation under the Crown. What lies in the womb of the future it is impossible to foresee but the British Empire never again can be just what it was before the war and only the gods know what form of political structure the new forces and conditions will develop.

THE POLITICS OF CANADA AS YET UNSETTLED.

In the meantime political conditions are unsettled. The long absences of the Prime Minister in England and France affected the cohesion of the Unionist party. Bye-elections have gone steadily against the Government. The farmers have organized as a national political party and in association with a Labor group have secured control of the Legislature of Ontario, and established an Independent group in the House of Commons. Sir Robert Borden, broken by the long strain of the war, and the perplexities and difficulties inseparable from political leadership, has withdrawn from public life, and has been succeeded by the Honorable Arthur Meighen. The United Farmers and the Liberals demand a lower tariff and unquestionably in the next general election, as in so many other political contests in Canada, that will be the chief issue between groups and parties. It is possible that we shall have a period of government by groups instead of by the two-party system which has prevailed since Confederation. Taxation is very heavy but the Government

has determined not to resort to further borrowing. New taxes just imposed are expected to yield an increase of \$70,000,000 in revenue. They include taxes on sales over definite amounts,

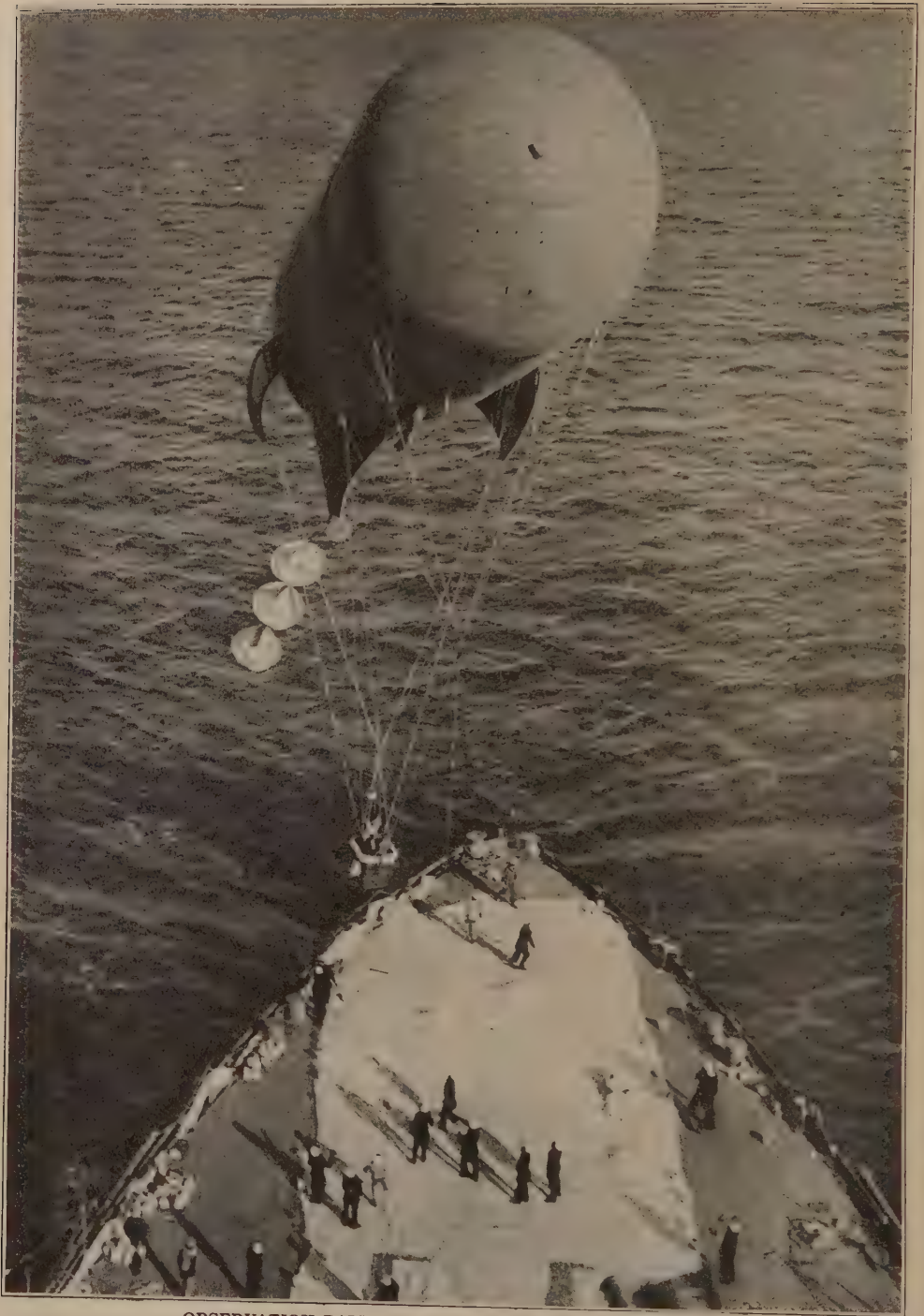


CANADA'S NEW PREMIER

The Hon. Arthur Meighen, who succeeded Sir Robert Borden as Prime Minister of Canada. He was formerly Minister of the Interior of the Dominion.

Photo by British and Colonial Press, Toronto.

heavier taxation of incomes above \$5,000, increase in stamp taxes, in taxes on promissory notes and bills of exchange, in excise taxes on automobiles and on beer, wine and spirituous liquors and a tax of two cents per share on stock transfers, with customs and profits taxes only very slightly reduced. But the temper of the country is firm and buoyant and whatever may be the immediate fortune of political parties the great burden which the war has laid upon the Canadian people will be carried without repining and without fear of the future.



OBSERVATION BALLOON ATTACHED TO U.S.S. OKLAHOMA

The value of lighter-than-air craft, which could hang stationary above the stretches of water where enemy activities were suspected, was fully demonstrated by the German dirigibles over the North Sea during the war. The Allies were not slow to heed this lesson and in the second and third years many ships were furnished with observation balloons. The one shown in the picture that has just risen from the deck of the U.S.S. Oklahoma, is of modern type with its hawsers secured to a "net" encasing the balloon envelope. The Oklahoma is a dreadnought of 27,500 tons displacement. She was laid down in 1912, carries 10 14-inch, and 21 5-inch guns and 4 torpedoes.

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U. S. Destroyer Henderson Making Smoke Screen

CHAPTER LXIV

The United States Naval Forces in European Waters

A SUMMARY OF THE ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY DURING THE GREAT WAR

BY REAR ADMIRAL WILLIAM S. SIMS, U. S. NAVY

THE effectiveness of Sea Power has always been measured by the degree of success with which it fulfills its mission in the support of Land Power. Sea Power is, in effect, the foundation upon which Land Power exists, for which reason the basic mission of the United States Navy during the Great War was to further a successful decision on land. Command of the sea does not, in itself, insure ultimate victory; but it is absolutely indispensable to a successful decision on land, for, once it has been established, the resources of allied and neutral nations are made available for the maintenance of those armies dependent upon supplies from overseas for their effective operations.

HOW COMMAND OF THE SEA MAY BE ESTABLISHED.

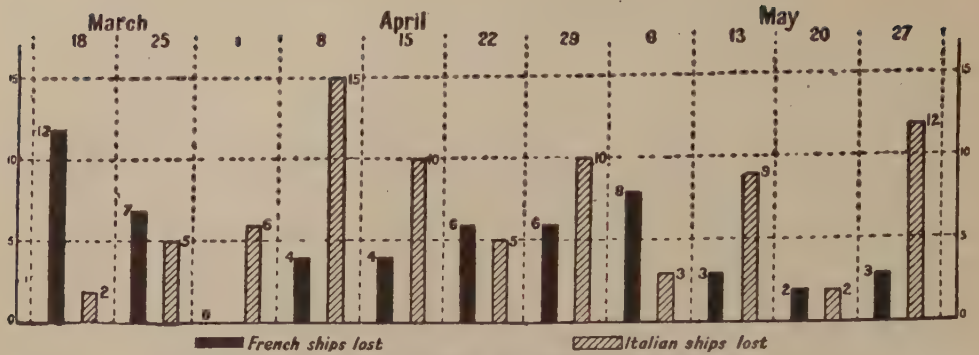
Command of the sea may be established by the actual destruction of the enemy naval forces, or by effectually "containing" them with an overwhelmingly superior force. This latter state of affairs existed at the time the United States declared war against Germany, on April 6, 1917, for the Allies had actually established partial command of the sea, inasmuch as the enemy's surface craft were effectually contained within the immediate vicin-

ity of his home waters. Although the enemy commanded the Baltic, and was at all times perfectly free to enter the North Sea, no operations in those areas could have had any serious influence upon the success of land operations, the court of last appeal, unless such operations were successful in defeating the British Grand Fleet, which was highly improbable.

THE GERMAN FLEET RENDERED IMPOTENT BY THE BRITISH GRAND FLEET.

The German High Seas Fleet was rendered, to all intents and purposes, impotent by the mere existence and readiness for battle of the British Grand Fleet guarding the exits of the North Sea. On the other hand, the sub-surface command of the sea had not been established by the Allies; and enemy submarines were, therefore, free to enter the Atlantic and prey upon commerce in their attempt to starve the Allies into submission and eventual surrender. Submarine Warfare was, in effect, directed against Land Power; and, inasmuch as it could be overcome only by naval forces, the relationship between Land Power and Sea Power is apparent. The success or failure of the Allied Armies depended entirely upon the success or failure of

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FRENCH AND ITALIAN LOSSES BY ENEMY SUBMARINES, 1917

Diagram showing the destruction of French and Italian shipping through a period of the eleven most critical weeks. The fluctuations were more marked than in the British losses. Many of the Italian vessels sunk were only small craft.

the submarine warfare being waged indirectly against them. To the Navies, therefore, fell the task of overcoming the submarine menace, and of preserving in this way the integrity of the Armies in order that ultimate victory might be achieved.

The enemy in making submarine warfare his principal naval effort was thus conforming directly to the basic mission of employing the naval forces at his disposal to further a successful decision on land.

MAINTAINING LINES OF COMMUNICATION THE MOST IMPORTANT TASK.

In view of the foregoing, it will readily be understood why the principal naval effort exerted by the United States during the Great War was that of safeguarding from enemy submarines the naval lines of communication to Europe. If not before, certainly after the Battle of Jutland, the Central Powers realized that they could never gain the control of the surface of the sea; and they accordingly concentrated every effort in their attempt to gain the sub-surface command of the sea, and thus establish an economic blockade which would eventually starve the Allies into submission and eventual defeat on land.

To appreciate this situation it must be understood that the Allied Armies and, later, our own Army as well, were chiefly dependent—not only as regards their fighting efficiency, but for their very existence—upon supplies from overseas. The maintenance in France of the American Army alone required

the delivery in French seaports of approximately 50,000 tons of supplies a day, from which it is evident that the very life, not to mention the effectiveness, of the combined Allied Armies required an immense and continuous supply of fuel, food and munitions from overseas. The interruption of the flow of these supplies even for a short time would have seriously handicapped the fighting efficiency of the Allied Armies on all fronts; success in actually severing the naval lines of communication, would infallibly have resulted in the victory of the Central Powers. This was fully realized, and therefore they were willing to risk all upon the chance

THE SUBMARINE CAMPAIGN REALLY A FLANKING MOVEMENT.

A very apt comparison may be drawn between these naval lines of communication and a number of electric light wires carrying current to a group of electric lights. One has but to cut the wires to extinguish the lights; and, in precisely the same way, the successful cutting of the naval lines of communication would have forced the surrender of the armies at the front. Realizing the futility of even attempting to wrest the control of the surface of the seas from the Allies, the Central Powers instituted the ruthless submarine campaign against merchant shipping as a means of obtaining a military decision on land. In reality, this was in the nature of a flanking movement, for, when two armies face each other, the best strategic practice con-

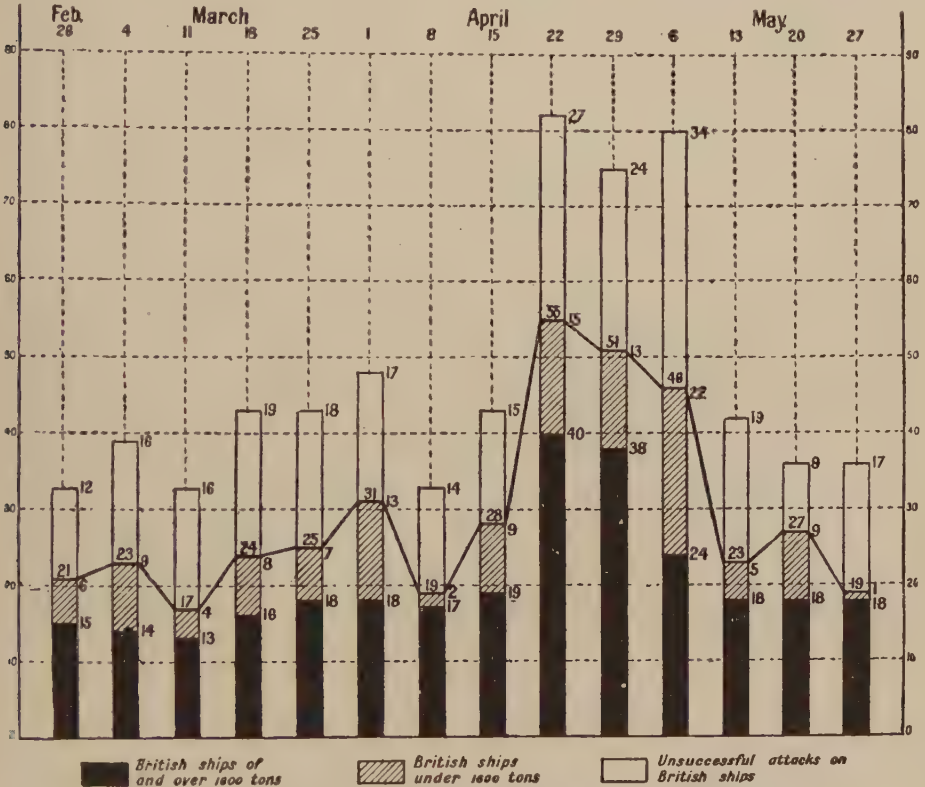
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sists of one army outflanking the other and cutting its lines of supplies. The submarine campaign was instituted with this end in view; and it was, therefore, in a sense, an auxiliary arm of the army.

THE DESPERATE SITUATION IN THE SPRING OF 1917.

Due more especially to the geographical location of Great Britain and

tonnage necessary to the very existence of the Allies had been carefully figured, and an estimate made of the probable losses for succeeding months, and from this information a simple arithmetical calculation gave the number of months the Allies could continue the prosecution of the war. Once the figure of available tonnage fell below that actually required, the war was over,



The black line shows the variation week by week of losses in all ships (except fishing vessels)
CHART OF THE INTENSITY OF THE SUBMARINE WAR, 1917

to her degree of dependence upon outside sources for food, the situation, when the United States declared war against Germany in the spring of 1917, was desperately critical. The enemy submarine campaign had assumed the most alarming proportions. Neutral and Allied merchant tonnage was being destroyed at a rate far exceeding that of construction; and the world's available tonnage was being taxed to the elastic limit in order to maintain the armies at the front in an efficient operating condition. The amount of naval

and over in favor of the Central Powers.

The breaking point had been sighted in the spring of 1917; and, just as a beleaguered fortress is starved into submission and eventual surrender, so, too, were the Allies facing that same fate at the hands of the enemy submarines. True to their highest traditions, however, the Allies were standing fast under the most terrific punishment imaginable, with that courage and steadfastness of purpose which eventually carried them to victory.

THE VALUE OF THE TORPEDO BOAT DESTROYER IN THE WAR.

Due to the fact that, throughout the entire period of the war, the Allies retained the control of the surface of the sea, they were free to employ any and all available types of small craft in the anti-submarine campaign, without fear of considerable destruction at the hands of the enemy. Although the enemy

operating. These areas were principally the approaches to those restricted waters through which shipping had to pass en route to ports of charge and discharge, as, for example, the English Channel, the entrance to the Irish Sea, and the waters adjacent to the north of Ireland and Scotland—the neck of the bottle, so to speak, through which millions of tons of ship-



THE AMERICAN DOCKS AT THE PORT OF BORDEAUX

Several French ports were given over almost entirely to the use of the American Army and at several others a special section of the port was assigned to the American forces. Here are the great cranes by which the supply ships were unloaded at Bordeaux. At first use was made of French railway equipment, but an increasingly large number of heavy American locomotives and freight cars was sent over.

suffered heavily at the hands of these small anti-submarine craft, our losses were comparatively slight. The U. S. destroyer Jacob Jones, and the converted yacht Alcedo, were sunk by torpedoes fired from enemy submarines, and the destroyer Cassin was seriously, but only temporarily, damaged by an enemy torpedo. The loss of life in each case was small.

Torpedo boat destroyers were generally acknowledged to be the most effective anti-submarine vessels, but, unfortunately, in 1917 the numbers available were almost hopelessly insufficient to patrol all of those areas in which the enemy submarines were

ping converged from all over the world.

DESTROYERS THE FIRST CONTRIBUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

In view of the foregoing, it was, therefore, logical that the initial American effort should consist in sending a number of torpedo boat destroyers to European waters to augment those of our Allies employed in hunting down submarines.

I had been relieved from duty as President of the Naval War College in the latter part of March, 1917, and ordered to London to estimate the situation and to report the result of my observations to the Navy Department.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

Two days before my arrival in Europe the United States declared war against Germany, so that I was received by the officials of the British Government as the representative of an ally, and, as such, given all the facts and figures which had not been issued to the press. I was appalled at the seriousness of the situation. The Central Powers were winning the war and the means of preventing them had not been developed. The ruthless submarine campaign bid

who, when asked by the British Vice-Admiral commanding the Coast of Ireland when his command would be ready for duty, replied with characteristic American energy, "We are ready now, Sir!" This spirit was typical of the entire naval forces operating in European waters. It was the revival of the old spirit of courageous defiance to unlawfully constituted authority, that made our presence in the war felt by the enemy as a most decisive factor.



A UNITED STATES DESTROYER ON PATROL DUTY

Dazzle painting was intended particularly to confuse an observer through a periscope. The reflections of the sun and sky on the water made it difficult sometimes for a hasty observation to determine the kind of ship, or the direction in which it was moving. Sometimes the submarine commander mistook a destroyer for a harmless fishing boat with decidedly unpleasant consequences.

U. S. Official.

fair to defeat the Allies unless it was frustrated, and the only way to accomplish this was to render the submarine impotent either by actual destruction or by so protecting merchant ships that they could not be sunk without grave risk to the attacker. Accordingly, I summarized all of my reports to the Navy Department with the statement that the United States should immediately assemble all of its destroyers and other light surface craft and dispatch them to assist the Allies in the prosecution of the anti-submarine campaign.

The first of these American destroyers reached Queenstown, Ireland, on May 4, 1917, under the command of Commander J. K. Taussig, U. S. Navy,

THE MORAL FORCES OF THE UNITED STATES IN EUROPE.

These pioneer American forces were followed by other naval craft, of the over and undersea types, until, at the date of the signing of the Armistice, on November 11, 1918, the U. S. Naval Forces operating in European waters, consisted of approximately 5,000 officers and 75,000 enlisted men, operating upwards of 375 men-of-war. These included battleships, cruisers, gunboats, transports, destroyers, submarines, submarine chasers, converted yachts, tugs, trawlers, tenders, mine-layers, and minesweepers; a naval aviation force operating air stations in England, Ireland, France and Italy;

and a complete 14-inch railway battery, which was placed under the operational command of General Pershing, commanding the American Expeditionary Forces in France. In addition, there were established a number of large naval bases or operating centres, for a navy in war, as well as during peace, is dependent to a very great extent upon shore facilities. The operations of our ships at sea were directed from these shore bases, for the use of wireless telegraphy makes it possible to maintain close and intimate connection with all forces at sea, no matter how widely they are scattered.

This great force, sub-divided into several operating units, was located throughout Europe from the White Sea to the Adriatic, and was controlled as a whole from Naval Headquarters in London, which city was, in reality, the centre of all maritime information and the heart of naval operations. With reference to that portion of the American Navy which I had the honor of commanding during the Great War, I consider that an important accomplishment to its credit was the degree and the character of co-operation with which it carried out its joint operations with the British, French and Italian Navies. This was an accomplishment difficult, if not impossible, to appraise in the form of specific statements, nor can it be reduced to statistics.

THE NECESSITY FOR COMPLETE CO-OPERATION WITH THE ALLIED FLEETS.

It was only natural that the personnel of an independent Naval Service, with its own peculiar methods and, to a great extent, its own traditions, should desire to put into practice, under actual war conditions, the methods of its many years of peace-time training and preparations. It was furthermore only natural that such an independent service should, at first, be inclined to resist amalgamation with another force. However, inasmuch as the war was approaching its third year when we cast our lot with the Allies, it was the part of wisdom, and the dictate of mature deliberation to make such use of our naval forces as would bring the maximum possible force to bear upon

the enemy in a combined Allied campaign against him. It was perfectly evident from the very beginning of our participation that, in order to be effective in overcoming the enemy submarine menace, we must co-operate and co-ordinate our efforts with those of our Allies. This demanded the suppression of personal ambitions, and the pooling of all common resources against the enemy.

The mere statement of such a policy sounds quite simple and easy of accomplishment, but there are many who served in Europe during the war who are only too well aware to the contrary. It would take a great many pages to give adequate expression to the difficulties and sacrifices involved in the execution of this policy. Our forces were widely scattered, our peace-time practices and methods were often ruthlessly abandoned, and situations of the most varied and complex character, for which no precedent whatsoever existed, were encountered and successfully met.

MANY PRACTICES AND METHODS ABANDONED FOR THE SAKE OF UNITY.

Our officers naturally found certain methods in use in Allied Navies which they considered to be inferior to those of our own Service. Some few felt that the efficiency of our vessels would be lowered unless our own methods were maintained in lieu of adopting those of the Allied Navies with whom we had so intimately associated ourselves. Even granting some of these contentions to have been sound, the facts remained that our naval forces were very much in the minority, and that the greatest war of all times had reached a critical stage of development which made it highly advisable that our co-operation should be complete in all respects; that there should be no changes that would even risk slowing down the joint campaign. As we were so greatly outnumbered in ships, men and general war material, it was perfectly apparent that even a possible sacrifice of our own efficiency could not be compared to the detrimental effect on the efficiency of the combined campaign of attempting joint operations with different methods of signaling and the like.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

The difficulties of combined Allied operations in time of war, that is, the difficulties of close and effective co-operation and co-ordination of effort between foreign services operating together, are well known to all students of history. The Great War was no exception in this respect. There is no doubt whatever that the American Navy operating in European waters established a new precedent in the degree and character of the co-opera-

of the convoy system, the introduction of the depth charge, and the invention, or more properly the increased effectiveness, of the hydrophone or listening device, by means of which a submarine running beneath the surface could be detected and located with considerable accuracy.

The convoy system is in principle as old as naval warfare, but it was resorted to during the Great War only as a matter of necessity, because modern



AN AMERICAN TRANSPORT ENTERING A FRENCH HARBOR

The principal French harbors used by the American Expeditionary Force were those of western France, especially Bordeaux, La Pallice, and St. Nazaire, though Brest alone was capable of receiving the largest ships. All of these ports were improved and enlarged by the Engineer Corps, and much labor-saving machinery was installed.

U. S. Official.

tion which it succeeded in putting into actual and efficient practice. Never before in the history of the world have the navies of great nations co-ordinated their efforts in such an effective manner. The principle adopted was "unity of command and of purpose," which principle was later effectively employed by the Allied Armies when they were placed under the command of an Allied Generalissimo.

THE WAY IN WHICH THE SUBMARINE WAS OVERCOME.

The submarine warfare continued to threaten the integrity of the naval lines of communication for some months after our entry into the war, but this menace was finally overcome by means

warfare had so altered conditions at sea that many naval officers did not consider it possible for merchant seamen to operate large convoys of ships sailing in close formation without exposing them to greater damage through collision, grounding, etc., than would be occasioned by enemy submarines operating against individual ships. Unfortunately, the majority of merchant seamen shared in this opinion and felt themselves incapable, by reason of insufficient specialization in the work required, of manœuvering by signals great numbers of unwieldy and slow moving ships in close formation, particularly at night without lights, in fog, and heavy weather, etc. Necessity,

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

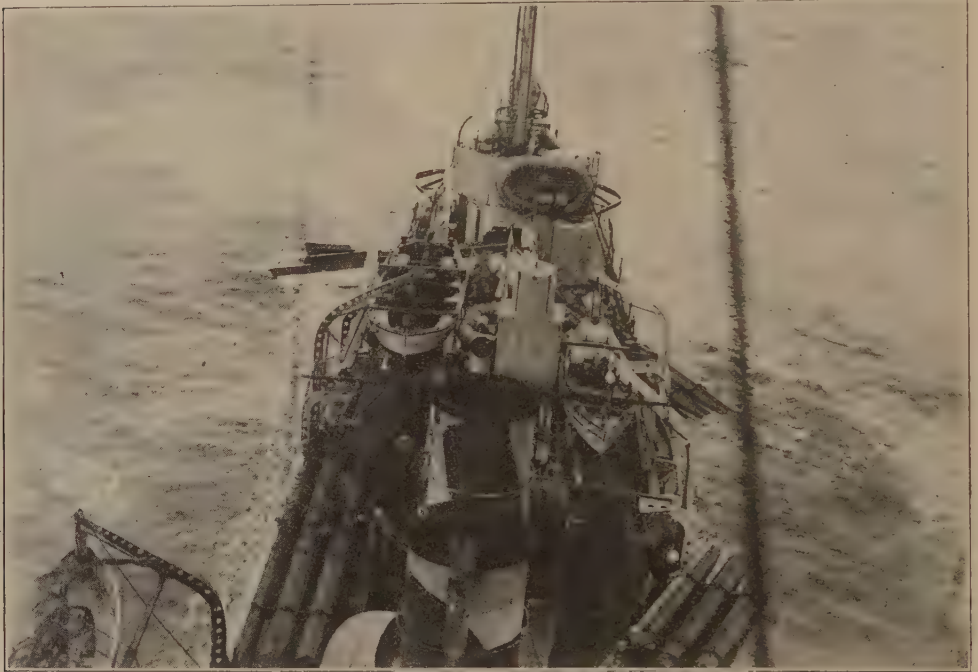
however, demanded a trial, which proved to be so successful that the convoy system was adopted during the summer of 1917, and maintained until the close of the war.

THE CONVOY SYSTEM AND THE DEPTH CHARGE MOST IMPORTANT.

The convoy system across the Atlantic Ocean was, in reality, but an enlargement of that used by the British

that building rapidly overtook destruction, and we were also able to transport over 2,000,000 troops to Europe in safety, and so defeat the very purpose for which submarine warfare was instituted.

The depth charge, a cylindrical steel container charged with from 300 to 600 pounds of high explosive, was the most effective weapon invented for use



THE U. S. DESTROYER "LITTLE" WITH A CONVOY

This view of the destroyer "Little" taken from above shows the torpedo tubes swung out ready for use. The United States battleships are generally named for states, cruisers for cities, and destroyers for naval men of the past. Some of these names lack euphony. U. S. Official.

in protecting the naval lines of communication from England to the Continent, by means of which about 20,000,000 souls were escorted during the four years of war without a single loss of life from enemy action. Had the United States and the Allies possessed destroyers in sufficient numbers to make it possible, an equally effective convoy system could have been established through the submarine zone. Unfortunately, such was not the case, which accounts for the fact that Atlantic convoys were not entirely immune from attack by submarines. They were, however, eminently successful in so decreasing the losses of shipping

against a submerged submarine. This contrivance was exploded by a hydrostatic piston, which could be adjusted to operate by the pressure of the water at a depth previously determined. They were carried by all anti-submarine craft in considerable numbers, and could be released instantaneously by means of a hydraulic pump operated from the bridge.

SSMALL CRAFT EFFECTIVE AGAINST THE SUBMARINE.

The hydrophones, or listening devices, never actually reached the stage of perfection before the close of the war. They were, however, extremely useful and of material assistance to us in

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

detecting the presence of submarines, and in assembling surface craft for an attack. Undoubtedly, had the war been prolonged, these scientific devices would have been greatly improved and extensively employed in hunting submarines.

As already explained, the Central Powers were not making war against the Allied Navies, but rather, and properly from their point of view, against Allied and neutral merchant tonnage in an attempt to establish an economic blockade and, in this way, bring about a decisive land victory. With the exception of the Battle of the Jutland and a few isolated raids, the German High Seas Fleet was, to all intents and purposes, paralyzed throughout the war. This condition permitted the Allies and ourselves to make free use of every available type of anti-submarine craft that were sufficiently seaworthy and sufficiently armed to oppose the submarines' guns. These small craft were most effective in protecting commerce, and in destroying submarines by means of the guns and depth charges they carried. Had it not been for the difficulty of crossing the Atlantic, the contribution by the United States of anti-submarine craft of the smaller types would have been considerably greater than it was.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE NAVAL FORCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The overcoming of the enemy submarine menace was accomplished by direct and indirect methods, as will be indicated in succeeding paragraphs. American destroyers, converted yachts, submarines and submarine chasers, were organized into anti-submarine squadrons, and, in co-operation with the Navies of our Allies, operated in those areas through which shipping had to pass en route to ports of charge and discharge. The principal anti-submarine bases were located at Queenstown, Ireland, Brest, France, and Gibraltar. In addition to these, submarine chaser bases were established at Plymouth, England, and at Corfu, Greece, from which these small 110-foot gasoline driven vessels operated with success.

The United States naval forces at

Queenstown were placed under the operational command of Admiral Sir Lewis Bayly, Royal Navy, the Commander-in-Chief of the coast of Ireland. I was represented at this base by Captain J. R. Pringle, U. S. Navy, who was charged with the internal administration, supply, discipline and up-keep of all American vessels based on that point. As Chief of Staff of the Queens-



VICE-ADMIRAL HENRY B. WILSON

Admiral Wilson commanded the forces based on Gibraltar before his transfer to Brest. U. S. Official.

town destroyer flotilla, and as a member of Admiral Bayly's staff, Captain Pringle served in a dual capacity and rendered exceptionally meritorious service in a position of great responsibility. Our naval forces at Brest were placed under the command of Rear Admiral William B. Fletcher, U. S. Navy, who was subsequently relieved by Rear Admiral Henry B. Wilson, U. S. Navy, who had commanded the Gibraltar forces until relieved by Rear Admiral A. P. Niblack, in November, 1917.

LIFE ABOARD ONE OF THESE SMALLER VESSELS.

Prior to the introduction of the convoy system, in the summer of 1917,

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American vessels were employed in patrolling those areas in which enemy submarines were operating. After the introduction of the convoy system, however, they were employed as convoy escorts, and in this way formed a screen around the convoys, which proved to be almost invulnerable to attack by submarines.

Life on board all of these small craft was strenuous to a degree. Operating

craft operated, and as an illustration of the strenuous life demanded of those who operated them. It is gratifying to realize that in no instance was there recorded a case of failure of personnel. All manner of hardships were cheerfully endured, and every sacrifice made for the common cause. Personal ambitions were sacrificed in the work of winning the war, and I desire to take this opportunity of expressing my high-



PREPARING TO DROP DEPTH CHARGES

These sailors are unloosening depth charges so that they may be dropped overboard at a second's notice. Naturally such destructive instruments were fastened tightly except when the ships were in a zone where submarines might be expected. Even if they were not in the immediate vicinity of a submarine when they exploded, the concussion was so great that it often disarranged the delicate machinery of the undersea craft. U. S. Official

under the strictest war conditions, steaming at high speeds, without lights at night, made navigation a difficult problem, and although there were accidents it was remarkable how few collisions impaired the efficiency of this force. The schedule of operations, as a rule, was from five to seven days at sea with two or three days in port. To realize the extent of this work, destroyers leaving their base at Queenstown to meet a convoy and escort it into port, covered approximately a distance equal to that from New York to Chicago, thence to Philadelphia, and back to New York to refuel, and, after three days of rest, repeated this same trip. I mention this as some indication of the extent to which these anti-submarine

est tribute to those gallant officers and men of the anti-submarine forces.

HOW THE VESSELS ARRIVING IN EUROPE WERE DISTRIBUTED.

As has been mentioned, the mobilization of the American Navy in European waters was accomplished gradually. No great Armada cleared from our home ports when we declared war against Germany, but, on the contrary, our naval forces were sent abroad in small detachments and at various intervals. There existed at all times a pressing need for more and more ships, especially for destroyers and tugs. The Navy had not been mobilized on a war basis before we entered the conflict, for which reason delays were inevitable. A great many

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

vessels had to be built and crews recruited and trained before they could be sent overseas. As these anti-submarine craft arrived from the United States they were allocated to one of the three principal European naval bases which we had occupied at Queenstown, Brest and Gibraltar, according to the

of the surface of the sea. This meant that there was no danger of their being attacked by enemy surface craft.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF ESCORT AND CONVOY WORK.

The work done by these vessels was excellent and played a most important part in bringing the War to a success-



GEORGE WASHINGTON, AMERICA AND DE KALB

Steaming in formation. These three were German ships, which were in United States ports when that country entered the war. The first two bear their old names, but the De Kalb was formerly the Prinz Eitel Friedrich.

necessity for reinforcements at those points.

When the Armistice with Germany was signed there were a total of 105 naval vessels suitable for escort or anti-submarine patrol duty attached to those three bases without counting the submarine chasers, which will be mentioned later. These included 2 cruisers, 68 destroyers, 25 armed yachts, 5 gunboats, and 5 Coast Guard cutters. They were used solely as convoy escorts or in hunting enemy submarines, for, with the exception of the destroyers, they were not regular men-of-war. They were well equipped, however, for fighting submarines, and we were perfectly free to employ them on this duty, inasmuch as we maintained command

ful conclusion. During the period from April 6, 1917, to November 9, 1918, they escorted 27 per cent of all United States, Allied and neutral tonnage carrying cargoes to France, England and Italy, and, in addition, escorted 62 per cent, or about 1,250,000 men of the American Expeditionary Force, to Europe without a single casualty from enemy action. The combined American Naval forces operating from Queenstown and Brest escorted 710 convoys, representing a total of over 7,000 ships, and in addition over 600 individual merchantmen operating singly. Those operating from Gibraltar supplied 27 per cent of the escorts for 383 local convoys in the Western Mediterranean, representing a total of over 4,000 ships.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

A conservative estimate based on the best available figures gives the distribution of convoy escort work about as follows: by England, 70 per cent, by United States, 27 per cent, and by France, 3 per cent. These figures are only approximate, but serve to indicate in a general way the degree of support furnished by the American Navy to the convoy system.

UNITY OF COMMAND THE RULE IN THE NAVAL FORCES.

Destroyer and other escort vessels were assembled and operated according to the general plan of pooling our resources against the common enemy, and in many instances representatives of the United States, Great Britain and France worked side by side on this duty, under the command of the senior naval officer present afloat, regardless of his nationality. The broad general plan had been prepared by the base commander, but the details of its execution were left entirely to the escort commander at sea.

In order to appreciate the gigantic task accomplished by Great Britain and America in the transportation of troops to Europe, it should be understood that up to January 1st, 1918, there were less than 300,000 American troops in Europe, and that this figure was increased to over 2,000,000 by November 11th, 1918. In other words, over 1,700,000 men of the American Expeditionary Force were transported overseas during the first eleven months of 1918. Of these 2,000,000 men 53 per cent were carried in British transports, 45 per cent in American transports and 2 per cent by the French. A few Italian transports were chartered and operated by the British Government, and are therefore classed as British transports. Those Dutch vessels which were requisitioned by the United States are classed as American transports.

During the summer of 1918 there were at times upwards of 150,000 troops on the ocean en route to Europe. The largest troop convoy that was assembled carried 36,000 men in 15 ships. The high water mark in troop transportation was reached in July, 1918, when 318,000 men were landed in Europe

during that month, not including a few British Colonial troops and a few thousand enlisted men of the United States Navy.

THE CONVOY FURNISHED PROTECTION AGAINST THE SUBMARINE.

Although escorted convoys were not entirely immune from submarine attack, the presence of the escorting vessels made it almost impossible for a submarine to deliver an attack with any chance of success. In short, submarines found it very dangerous to attack a convoy escorted by destroyers armed with depth charges. There was always, however, the possibility of one or more enemy raiders making good their escape from the North Sea to prey upon commerce in the Atlantic. As a protection against this, convoys were escorted across the ocean, until met by destroyer escorts, by vessels of the cruiser class, commonly referred to as "ocean escorts" to distinguish them from the smaller vessels that escorted them through the submarine zone. The American Navy furnished these ocean escorts for 166 convoys from the United States to England and France, of which 84 were troop convoys. All but two of these ocean escorts were based upon United States ports.

An inspection of the charts comparing the sinkings by enemy submarines in April, 1917, with those of April, 1918, is indicative of the fact that the convoy system not only greatly decreased tonnage losses but was successful in forcing the submarines into inshore and restricted waters, so that they might attack those vessels which had been dispersed from large convoys and were proceeding independently to their several ports of discharge. In April, 1917, vessels were being sunk as far as 600 miles west of the English Channel, whereas in the corresponding month of the following year, almost all sinkings were in the close vicinity of land.

THE CONVOY SYSTEM FORCED THE SUBMARINE CLOSE TO SHORE.

This important change in the conduct of the submarine campaign was primarily due to the fact that it was exceedingly difficult for enemy submarines to locate convoys at sea, and

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furthermore very dangerous to attack them. They were thus forced to limit their operations to those restricted waters through which shipping had to pass, as for example, the English Channel or the Irish Sea, to the obvious advantage of our Allies, who patrolled these restricted waters with thousands of small craft capable of carrying depth charges, but not sufficiently seaworthy to operate in the Atlantic.

SUMMARY OF THE VALUE OF THE CONVOY SYSTEM.

Reviewing the convoy system, the principal advantages derived from its adoption were:

(a) It furnished a great measure of protection to ships at sea by making it difficult for enemy submarines to find shipping. When convoys were sighted successful attacks by submarines were made most difficult. A convoy of 50



GERMAN SUBMARINE SURRENDERING TO U.S. DESTROYER FANNING

There was a further reason for submarines operating close inshore, for practically all shipping at sea was assembled into convoys, whereas vessels proceeding from one port to another along the coast usually sailed independently through only partially patrolled waters. This coastal trade was very heavy and the number of vessels available for escort duty was wholly inadequate. All of the great coal trade, for example, from Cardiff to France, passed along the Cornish coast independently as far as Falmouth, where it was assembled into convoys for the cross channel passage to France.

ships is a very small dot on the surface of the ocean, whereas 50 ships steaming on various courses cover a very considerable area.

(b) It reduced the losses of shipping to about one-tenth that of the losses of independent sailings.

(c) As submarines found difficulty in locating convoys on the high seas they were forced to operate in restricted waters where Allied anti-submarine craft and aircraft were most effective in sinking a large number of them.

(d) It protected shipping against the gunfire of enemy surface raiders and particularly of submarine cruisers carrying large calibre guns, as each convoy

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

was escorted by one or more "ocean escorts" or cruisers.

(e) The protection afforded by ocean escorts gave the mercantile marine a great sense of security and of confidence. Furthermore, as the ocean escorts carried powerful wireless equipments and were thoroughly familiar with the rules for handling secret publications and telegraphic codes, instructions of a very secret nature could be sent from Lon-



A SUBMARINE CHASER

don direct to the convoy escort commander and in this way routes of convoys could readily be changed to avoid submarine activity further along the intended route. Ocean escorts exercised rigid control over the convoys and prevented the display of lights, unnecessary use of wireless, throwing garbage overboard and the many other indiscretions which might have indicated to the enemy their presence. In a similar manner reports could be received from convoys through the medium of the ocean escort.

THE TINY SUBMARINE CHASERS WERE VERY EFFECTIVE.

Of all the vessels employed in the anti-submarine patrol, the American

sub-chasers appeal most strongly to one's imagination by reason of their small size and the fact that they were operated almost entirely by volunteer crews. A total of 170 of these boats were based on ports in the Irish Sea, English Channel, and the Adriatic Sea, where they assisted in the offensive and defensive warfare directed against enemy submarines. They were operated in groups, and the personnel were especially trained in submarine hunting by means of especially constructed listening devices. Five special and three auxiliary bases were constructed to support these vessels and to maintain them in an efficient operating condition.

These sub-chasers were 110-foot gasoline driven boats, which were built after the United States entered the war. They displaced 60 tons and carried one 3 inch gun and 12 depth charges, with a crew of 2 officers and 23 men. These small craft crossed the Atlantic by way of Bermuda and the Azores escorted in convoys of 12 to 24, sailing as fast as they were fitted out and commissioned. The length of the trip necessitated fueling the boats at sea, and towing them for part of the trip.

LISTENING DEVICES INCREASE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THESE VESSELS.

Thirty-six of these chasers operated from Corfu, Greece, forming part of the "barrage" across the Straits of Otranto. Others operated from Plymouth, protecting the western end of the English Channel and hunting submarines in that locality. A third detachment operated from Queenstown, Ireland, using Wexford and Holyhead as auxiliary Irish bases, and Berehaven as an auxiliary base for the southwest coast of Ireland. Finally, when Austria signed the Armistice, 18 of them, which were then at the Azores en route from the United States, were ordered to Gibraltar, where they did valuable work against the German submarines which were forced to leave the Mediterranean for lack of operating bases. The operations of these boats were essentially different from that of most other anti-submarine vessels. They carried as part of their equipment American listening devices which enabled them to

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

follow and attack submerged submarines with considerable success. At night they drifted noiselessly with their listening devices manned and could hear a submarine at a distance depending upon the speed at which it was going. Many of their most successful attacks were made in this manner, for at night the submarines lost the protection of sight, while remaining equally vulnerable to detection by sound.

By day they patrolled, stopping at intervals to listen for submerged submarines. This form of patrol was not as successful as the night work, though several good encounters took place. In addition to their strictly anti-submarine work, they frequently assisted in the forming of convoys, helped torpedoed vessels to reach port, and destroyed drifting mines.

THE SMALL CRAFT AT THE BOMBARDMENT OF DURAZZO.

Perhaps the most spectacular performance of the chasers was their participation in the bombardment of Durazzo. In this affair they were the covering force for the Italian and British vessels engaged in the bombardment. Though one division was between the fire of the Austrian forts and the bombarding vessels, to protect the latter from submarine attack, they escaped unscathed and had the distinction of beating off the submarines. The Italian Naval General Staff expressed their appreciation of the chasers' work, and credited them with sinking two enemy submarines. The Commander of the British Adriatic Force in expressing his appreciation credited them definitely with destroying one submarine, and damaging and probably destroying another. He added "They thoroughly enjoyed themselves." Subsequently the chasers participated in the taking of Durazzo and did valuable work along the Dalmatian coast in protecting our interests, and assisting in the maintenance of order in the occupied territory.

STRICT CONTROL OF MERCHANT SHIPPING FOUND NECESSARY.

From the beginning of the war it became necessary to control shipping. As all vessels were required to proceed

without lights, it was necessary to regulate their movements so as to avoid collisions, not only between east and west bound vessels, but also between these and the vessels crossing their tracks from north and south. Furthermore, it was necessary to know the positions of all shipping at sea so as to divert it as necessary away from enemy submarines and mined waters. To this end wireless war warnings were regularly



EXPLOSION OF A GERMAN MINE

sent out. These warnings were always in cipher to prevent their being read by the enemy.

It was evident in the beginning that a single control of all shipping must be exercised in order to prevent confusion, avoid collisions, prevent interference in war warnings, divert vessels to safe harbors, and so forth. As the British had the largest organization and the greatest interest in shipping, and as the communication service to London was the most complete in Europe, and further as the British Intelligence Service was a very highly developed one, the British Admiralty naturally became the centre for controlling the movements of

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

all shipping, each nation being represented in this control through their naval organizations in London.

HOW THE MACHINERY OF CONTROL WAS EXERCISED.

In order to exercise a rigid control over the sailing of ships, and particularly in order to route all ships and convoys to the best advantage, naval officers were stationed in all the principal ports in the Atlantic and in the Medi-

had grown to large proportions. A great deal of secret printed instructions had been promulgated by the Admiralty on behalf of the Allies and distributed to Allied shipping, and, of course, America took advantage of the system already organized and in operation and entered into this joint control through the headquarters in London of the Commander of the U. S. Naval Forces.



CREW OF A SUBMARINE CHASER MAKING PLAY OF WORK

The submarine chasers were manned chiefly by men and boys of the Naval Reserve which included many college men. This chaser was stationed in the Mediterranean and the crew in somewhat abbreviated costume is shown making a joke of the task of swabbing the deck. These chasers were one of the successes of the war.

British Official.

terranean to advise ships as to routes and to furnish them the latest sailing directions.

When the Germans began the intensive submarine campaign it became necessary to prescribe in greater detail the route that each ship should take in approaching European ports. The necessary information was sent out from London to the various organizations in the principal ports of the world, and communicated by these organizations to all Allied ships before sailing. This unity of control was maintained from the beginning of the war, and when America entered the war the system described was in full operation and

CONVOY CONTROL ALSO EXERCISED CHIEFLY FROM LONDON.

Thus all shipping controlled by the Allies was handled in the same way, and as vessels sailing from South America, Africa, New York, France, etc., were guided by similar instructions, issued in French and English, the system was operated with the minimum chance of error. After the opening of unrestricted submarine warfare it soon became evident that the method in use of protecting the shipping by patrolling dangerous areas and letting ships proceed independently was not satisfactory, and the losses—particularly during the spring and early summer of

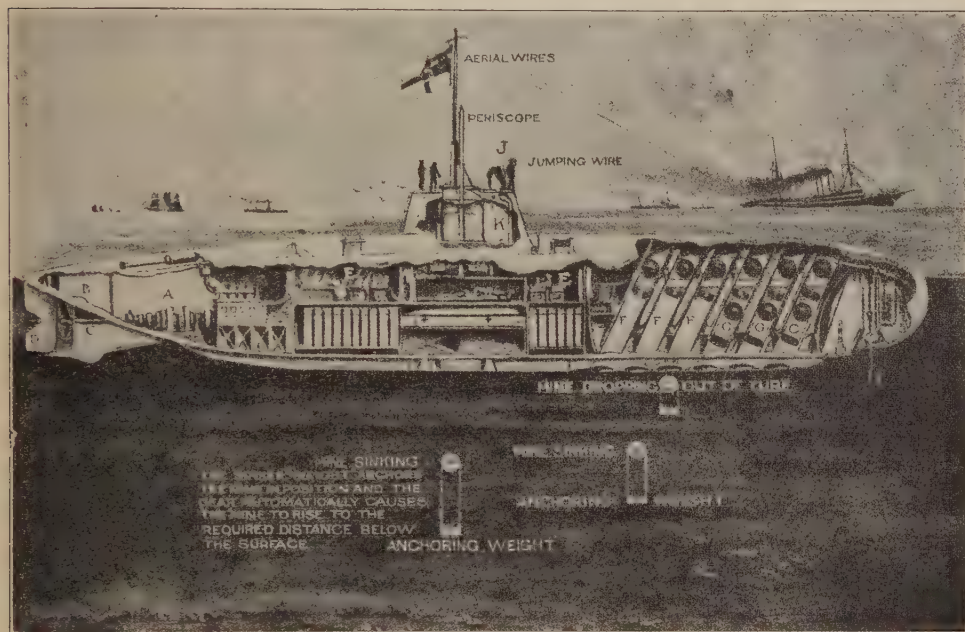
HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

1917—became so serious as to necessitate a change in methods.

The convoy system was adopted and put into effect in the summer of 1917. The same reasons for strong central control of all shipping obtained more in the case of convoys than in the case of vessels sailing independently, for as all vessels were sailing without lights and as convoys frequently consisted of upwards of thirty vessels, the serious consequences of a collision caused by

THE PROPORTION OF CONVOYS FURNISHED BY THE UNITED STATES.

The details of the organization of convoys—providing them with signal manuals, instructions as to how to manœuvre while in formation, how to proceed in a fog and heavy weather, etc., and all other details of handling, were worked out and issued from London. The U. S. Navy furnished convoy commanders for all American troop convoys, also for some convoys carry-



A GERMAN MINE-LAYING SUBMARINE AT WORK

one convoy meeting another by night or in a fog were at once evident. In order to eliminate the danger of collisions, as well as to give convoys safe routes, each Atlantic convoy was routed from London and the route cabled in cipher to the port from which the convoy sailed. Furthermore, as the destroyer escorts were necessarily all based in Europe the schedule of convoy sailings was necessarily determined in London, and the sailing dates from various ports were regulated so as to make a co-ordinated system in which the most efficient use was made of available destroyers, and congestion of ports avoided by separating dates of arrivals of convoys.

ing our Army stores. All other convoys were commanded by officers of the British Navy.

By means of secret codes, wireless orders could be sent to any distance and the convoys diverted from their routes as necessary to avoid enemy submarines or other convoys. This control from London applied to all convoys in the Atlantic, and in the Mediterranean, whether bound for France or for the United Kingdom, and to all troop and cargo convoys, including those carrying U. S. Troops, as well as to the schedule for the sailing of all convoys. The advantages of such a system are manifest. All confusion and difficulty were avoided, and the



NAVAL RESERVE DRILLING AT THE PELHAM BAY STATION

most efficient use was made of the various port facilities. The accumulated experience of the Allied mercantile marines was available in London for dissemination to all the Allies, and invaluable aid to shipping was given by the Admiralty Intelligence Division, which saved thousands of tons of Allied shipping by timely warning to the convoy section of the position of the enemy.

The foregoing remarks apply only to the control that was exercised with the object of rendering safer the passage of shipping at sea. As the submarine war progressed it became evident to all the Allies that the success of the Allied campaign was entirely dependent on shipping. To effect greater economy in its use and, particularly, to make the most efficient war use of all available shipping, there was set up the Allied Maritime Transport Council, whose function was to recommend the best allocation of ships, regardless of their nationality. Under this organization, certain British shipping was allocated to France and Italy, and British vessels not only carried American troops to Europe in large numbers, but also supplies from America to France for the U. S. Army.

WHY THE SUBMARINE COULD NOT DESTROY AMERICAN TRANSPORTS.

The public in general is much interested in the reasons why German submarines failed to interrupt the flow of troops from the United States to Europe. We cannot assume that the Germans were averse to sinking transports, as they torpedoed the *Tuscania*, *Moldavia*, *Persic*, and other troopships in the Mediterranean. At least three

other troop convoys were ineffectually attacked by submarines, and the German press commented gloatingly when they thought they had sunk the *Leviathan*, though they discovered later that it was the *Justicia*. There is no possibility of mistaking transports for cargo vessels, as the two types are quite distinct. Transports in general have two or more smoke-stacks, and their superstructure decks and higher speed makes it easy to distinguish them from cargo vessels. The main reasons why submarines were unable to hinder the flow of troops are as follows—

a. Speed of Transports.

In general, no vessels were permitted to carry troops that were unable to maintain a speed of at least 12 knots, and many of the transports had speeds of 15 knots up to 22 knots. It must be understood that high speed in itself does not render ships immune from attack. High speed, however, makes it much more difficult for a submarine to get in a favorable position to deliver an attack. Unless a submarine is almost in the course of a fast ship it will have little chance of getting in position for attack, as the submerged speed of submarines is only 7-8 knots. Furthermore, in order to hit a high-speed vessel the torpedo must be fired farther ahead than in the case of a slow vessel, and as the torpedo reveals itself by its wake there is more opportunity for a fast ship to avoid the attack by manœvering than in the case of a slow vessel. A considerable degree of immunity, therefore, was insured by selecting vessels of good speed to serve as transports.

b. Destroyer Protection.

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In general, transports were assigned a destroyer escort, which was about *three* times as strong as the escort assigned to cargo vessels. In some cases of particularly valuable transports the escort was ten times as strong.

c. Darkness.

During darkness, the periscope of the submarine is useless, and submarines must come to the surface if they desire to deliver attack. While on the surface submarines become subject to attack by destroyers surrounding the convoy. During the ordinary dark night visibility does not exceed more than from half-a-mile to a mile, and, as the convoy is completely darkened, the probability of a submarine finding a convoy at night is extremely remote, and there is considerable risk to the submarine if he attempts to attack. For the foregoing reasons troop convoys in general, while in the open sea, were brought through the most dangerous submarine areas during darkness.

d. Routing of Transports.

As only about 15 per cent of the vessels in Atlantic convoys carried troops it was the practice, when possible, to route troop transports in special lanes through which cargo convoys did not pass and these lanes were constantly shifted according to the known positions of the submarines. This greatly increased the safety of troop transports, as it practically forced submarines to concentrate their efforts in the areas through which cargo vessels (comprising 85 per cent of the shipping) passed.

If a submarine took station in one of these troop transport lanes he might have remained for weeks without even sighting a convoy. Even if the submarines had known at all times the positions of these troop lanes and had concentrated their effort in them, they would have found in each convoy a



THE MINE-FIELDS OF THE NORTH SEA

The German mine-fields were laid early in the war. The British laid mines across the Straits of Dover, off the German ports, and off Scotland and the Shetland Isles. The mine-fields in the form of an angle between Norway and Scotland were chiefly laid by American mine-laying ships.

relatively small number of ships, all of high speed, and hence difficult to attack. Furthermore, the destroyer escort was three times as strong as the escort protecting cargo vessels.

FAILURE TO DESTROY TRANSPORTS CAUSES TROUBLE IN GERMANY.

In the summer of 1918, when the transport of troops reached such large

proportions, it became evident to the enemy that this flow of troops, if uninterrupted, would shortly reverse the military situation on land, and consequently there were great clamorings in the German press against their Admiralty for the failure of the submarines to sink the transports. Whether or not such action was justified on sound military grounds, the failure to accomplish this led directly to the fall, in August, 1918, of the Minister of Marine, von Capelle. The new Minister, Admiral von Mann, presumably catering to public opinion, apparently made a determined effort to destroy troop transports en route to France. If this was his intention it failed miserably for the sinkings of merchant tonnage continued to fall off steadily until the end of the war.

The question has often been asked why we did not destroy those enemy naval bases from which submarines operated—"Dig the rats out of their holes" was the popular demand. We did bomb those bases from aircraft but with only indifferent results, for they were heavily protected and strongly fortified. The possibility of such attempts being made was naturally foreseen by the enemy, with the result that precautions were taken to guard against raids which would have been futile on our part. It would have been like butting one's head against a stone wall in the attempt to knock it down. The British Navy did succeed, however, in blocking Ostend and Zeebrugge by a determined and masterful stroke, thus temporarily closing these ports.

THE PLAN TO BOTTLE UP SUBMARINES IN THE NORTH SEA.

It was, however, possible to bottle the submarines up in the North Sea and in this way prevent them from operating against shipping in the Atlantic and in its approaches. The British Navy, after years of effort, succeeded in blocking the Straits of Dover to such an extent that submarines were unable to pass through them. It then remained to block the Northern exits from the North Sea and the submarine menace would be reduced to almost negligible proportions. It was decided that this

should be done by a joint operation of the U. S. and British Navies, and accordingly we established two large mining bases at Inverness and Invergordon in Scotland from which to conduct operations.

This work involved the designing of an entirely new type of mine and its manufacture in the United States. We agreed to invent the mine and build it, which we did. To lay these mines a squadron of American merchantmen were converted into special mine carrying vessels and were sent to Europe under the command of American Naval officers and manned by Naval crews. The execution of the general plan was accomplished in close co-operation with the British Navy, for during the actual mine-laying operations our ships were protected by British destroyers. This material co-operation was necessary, for at no time during the War did American destroyers operate in the North Sea. They were naturally based on those ports nearer their source of supplies at home, and from which they could operate most effectually in escorting troop and merchant convoys.

LAYING THE GREAT NORTH SEA MINE BARRAGE.

When the Armistice with Germany was signed this American Mine Force, under the command of Rear Admiral Joseph Strauss, U. S. Navy, consisted of 300 officers and over 6,000 enlisted personnel, who operated the two principal shore establishments at Inverness and Invergordon, and in addition the following vessels comprising the mining squadron. This squadron was composed of the mine planters

BALTIMORE	CANANDAIGUA
SAN FRANCISCO	ROANOKE
QUINNEBAUG	SARANAC
HOUSATONIC	SHAWMUT
CONANICUS	AROOSTOOK
Tugs (mine sweepers)	
PATUXENT	PATAPSCO

Tender

BLACK HAWK

which had arrived in Europe between March 17 and June 29, 1918, and was commanded by Captain R. R. Belknap, U. S. Navy.

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The laying of the "Northern Mine Barrage" was undoubtedly the largest single mining operation ever undertaken. The total barrage was approximately 240 miles long and 30 miles wide. It consisted of 15 "fences" of mines laid about 100 yards apart. Active operations were begun on June 8, 1918, and when the Armistice was signed the U.S. Navy had planted 56,571 mines. In one operation a field of 5,520 mines was laid in 3 hours and 51 min-

from a German source, these cases must still be considered as "possibilities" only. There is reason to believe, moreover, that at least ten enemy submarines ended their careers at the barrage before the middle of October, 1918.

Of one thing we are certain and that is that this barrage had a very destructive effect on the morale of enemy submarine crews and that no small amount of panic was created thereby. Although the expense involved was considerable,



THE SIXTH BATTLE SQUADRON OF THE GRAND FLEET

Five United States battleships were attached to the British Grand Fleet, and became the Sixth Battle Squadron of the fleet. They were good ships, though not the latest type, as the scarcity of oil in Europe made the sending of ships burning coal preferable. This picture was made among the mists and fogs of the Firth of Forth.

U. S. Official.

utes, or at the rate of 1,440 mines per hour, a feat unparalleled in the history of mining operations. The average number of mines laid per trip or "excursion" was 4,343. The total cost of this barrage, 70 per cent of which was laid by the American Navy, up to the cessation of hostilities, was about \$48,275,000.00.

WHAT THE EFFECTS WERE OF THIS GREAT BARRAGE

Although but few concrete results can be credited to this great mine barrage, it is definitely known that at least 6 enemy submarines were seriously damaged whilst attempting to cross it, and it is quite probable that several submarines were sunk. Owing to the difficulty of establishing these facts as absolute, however, and until more conclusive evidence is obtained, probably

the results achieved more than compensated for the expenditures made, for it was doubtless a powerful factor in assisting the enemy to make up his mind to quit before the quitting got any worse. Had the war continued, additional "fences" would have been added to the barrage, thus increasing its density and rendering passage across it more and more dangerous.

NAVAL GUNS UNDER A REAR ADMIRAL IN FRANCE.

Early in the winter of 1918, the Navy Department offered to supply for use on the western front a number of 14-inch, 50-calibre guns which had been built for the six battle cruisers whose construction was arrested by our entry into the war. This offer was accepted by the army. Accordingly the railroad gun carriages, special locomotives, and

all other necessary equipment was designed and contracted for, and by the early spring five complete mobile land batteries were ready for shipment to Europe. These units were placed under the command of Rear Admiral C. P. Plunkett, U. S. Navy, who, with characteristic energy, completed his preparations for sailing in record time and arrived in France in the summer of 1918, and at once set about assembling his guns for active duty at the front.

Although manned and served entirely by naval personnel this unit was placed under the operational command of General Pershing. The first gun was mounted on August 5, 1918, at Saint Nazaire, France, and on August 13 a request was received from General Pershing to send two of the guns at the earliest possible date to the front for an important mission. Guns No. 1 and No. 2 accordingly left Saint Nazaire for the Western Front on August 17 and 18, but unfortunately their objective, the German long-range gun which fired into Paris, had been moved before they got into position.

These guns were the most powerful artillery units on the Western Front. Their range was 42,500 yards, or about 24 statute miles, and it is particularly noteworthy that the shooting done was remarkably accurate for such long ranges. Each gun was a complete self-sustaining unit, consisting of one locomotive, one railroad gun carriage and a number of cars. The cars carried the ammunition and were equipped with ample accommodations for the operating personnel. In all, these guns fired 646 rounds from seven different points, principally from Soissons, Charny and Thierville, between September 2 and the Armistice.

THE SIXTH BATTLE SQUADRON OF THE GRAND FLEET.

During the winter of 1917-'18, a division of American battleships consisting of the New York, Florida, Wyoming, Texas, and Arkansas, under the command of Rear Admiral Hugh Rodman, U. S. Navy, was attached to the British Grand Fleet as reinforcements. These vessels were chosen because they were of the coal-burning

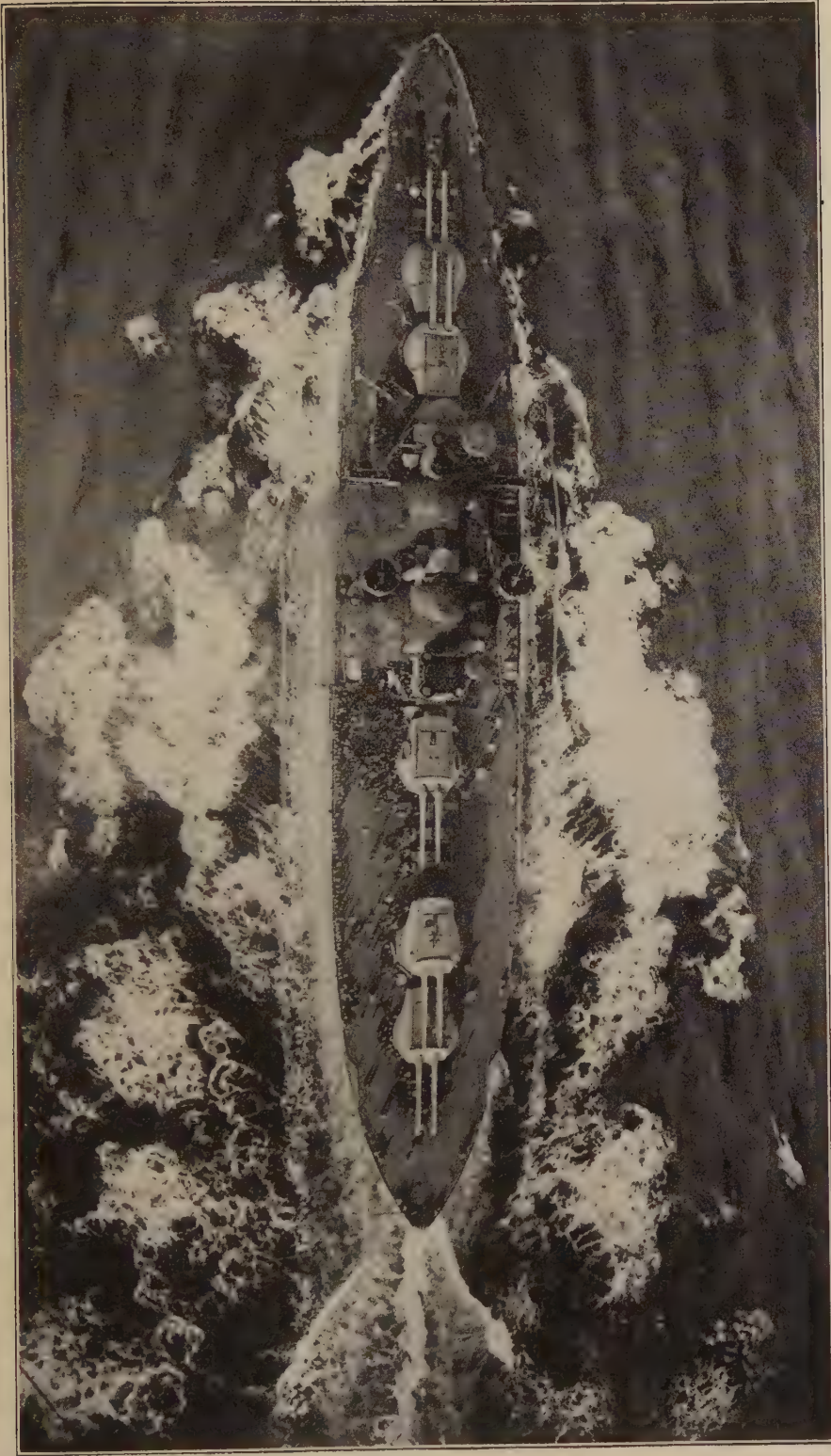
type, in preference to those burning oil—the supply of which was limited. These battleships were incorporated as an integral part of the British Fleet and were officially designated as the "Sixth Battle Squadron." Their co-operation with the British was excellent in all respects, and they would certainly have reflected the greatest credit to the country they represented had the German High Seas Fleet given them a chance to prove their worth. As it was, the Sixth Battle Squadron rendered valuable duty in the North Sea, taking its regular turn in escorting convoys to and from the Scandinavian countries.

OTHER DREADNOUGHTS STATIONED ON THE IRISH COAST.

In addition to those battleships which were attached to the Grand Fleet three American dreadnoughts were based at Berehaven, Ireland, and there held in readiness to oppose any movement on the part of the enemy battle cruisers or heavily armed ships directed against commerce in the Atlantic. There was always the possibility of the enemy making a sortie of this nature, which had to be guarded against by the employment of these ships. German naval authorities had been severely criticised by their own press for their failure to interrupt the transportation of troops and munitions crossing the Atlantic. It would have been natural for the German Admiralty to attempt to sever the naval lines of communication by sending out one or more fast battle cruisers to prey on commerce—a forlorn hope, to be sure, but at the same time, a possibility. Although the enemy raiders never appeared, this American squadron, consisting of the Utah, Nevada, and the Oklahoma, under the able command of Rear Admiral T. S. Rogers, U. S. Navy, did excellent work in escorting a number of troop convoys as an additional precaution against the possibility of an attack by enemy raiders.

THE NAVAL AIR SQUADRONS IN ENGLAND, IRELAND, FRANCE AND ITALY.

A great deal has already been written about "The Flying Sailors," and of the splendid work to their credit. With but very few exceptions, all of our naval air



A PHOTOGRAPH MADE FROM A BALLOON A THOUSAND FEET IN THE AIR

This picture shows the U.S.S. New York with her decks cleared for action and steaming at full speed in the North Sea, where she formed a part of the Sixth Battle Squadron of the Grand Fleet. The photograph was taken from an observation balloon 1,000 feet directly over her. The New York's ten 14-inch guns can all be plainly seen, some of her twenty-one 5-inch ones are obscured by the smoke, and if enemy aircraft or shipping were in the vicinity more would be concealed by the smoke screen she could put up with soft coal. In addition, she carried four torpedo tubes, and an 11-inch armored belt. Times Photo.

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stations in Europe had to be built from the ground up. This took considerable time and, in consequence, United States naval aviation in Europe was only just beginning to function on a large scale when the Armistice with Germany was signed.

Large naval aviation establishments were erected in England at Killing-

the anti-submarine campaign being waged against him.

Seaplanes were especially valuable for escort duty by reason of their great radius of action and their ability to see the submarine at a distance. They were, furthermore, extremely useful in preventing submarine mine-laying operations close inshore. It is difficult to



REVELATIONS OF NEW TYPES AFTER THE WAR

Latest type of French cruiser submarine showing unusual lines. Although the end of the war did not reveal so many varieties in undersurface craft as in aerial vessels, yet there were submersible merchantmen like the *Bremen*, and decoys trimmed up as fishing boats or trawlers, while the speed, armament and safety devices of the ordinary attacking type had been improved.

holme and Eastleigh; in Ireland at Queenstown, Lough Foyle, Wexford and at Bantry Bay; in France at Dunkerque, Traguier, l'Aber Vrach, Brest, Ile Tudy, Le Croisie, Fromentine, St. Trojan, Arcachon, Guipavas, Paimbœuf, Gujan, La Trinité, La Pallice and Paulliac, and, in addition, a large bombing group in the Flanders area; in Italy at Porto Corsini and Pescara, and even greater projects were in process of formation when the end came. Much of the work accomplished was done in the North Sea, and consisted in escorting convoys, patrolling mine fields, and reconnaissance flights. The establishment of naval aviation in Europe was one of the determining factors in bringing the war to a successful conclusion, for the enemy appreciated what a powerful force this would be in

estimate the exact value of the seaplane in the Great War, but there can be no doubt that it was a very distinct asset, and its use against the enemy submarine was in a very large measure responsible for the success attained in overcoming that menace.

THE "MYSTERY SHIPS" AND THE ANTI-SUBMARINE CAMPAIGN.

Without doubt the most interesting and the least-known type of vessel used in the anti-submarine campaign was the "mystery ship." As the name implies, mystery, or more properly, secrecy, was essential to its successful operation, for in reality the mystery ship was nothing more than an ordinary merchant ship carrying concealed guns and torpedoes, which could be brought very quickly into action by dropping false sides or laying aside other ingen-

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ious contrivances devised to conceal their existence.

Their method of operating against the enemy was to trick him into the belief that they were harmless merchantmen, and then, at the right moment, to deal the death-blow from a hidden gun or torpedo. This work required the very highest type of physical and moral courage, for which reason crews were selected always from volunteers and with the greatest care. Every possible precaution was taken in the reconstruction of the ship to insure its remaining afloat as long a time as possible after it had been torpedoed. Interior compartments were filled with wood so as to increase the buoyancy and thus prevent sinking or increase the time interval between torpedoing and sinking.

HOW THE MYSTERY SHIPS INVITED ATTACK.

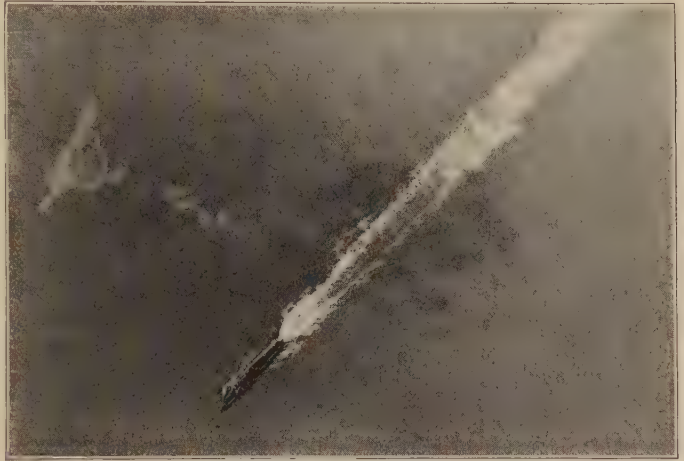
Disguised as a harmless old merchant vessel, the heavily armed decoy-ship would invite attack by cruising at slow speed back and forth through those waters in which enemy submarines were likely to be encountered. Sometimes she would be attached to a large convoy of ships and, pretending to have engine trouble, would drop astern in the hope that a submarine would torpedo her as a defenseless lame duck.

When a submarine was sighted, its presence would be ignored. The mystery ship would continue on her course as though she didn't know that a submarine was in the vicinity. This was part of the game and gave the enemy an excellent opportunity to get into the best position for launching a torpedo.

After the ship had been hit the procedure was as follows: one-half of the crew, officially known as the "panic party," would be ordered to abandon ship in apparent confusion and panic,

thus simulating the actions of a merchant crew abandoning their ship to its fate. The other half of the crew would remain hidden in the vicinity of the concealed guns or torpedo tubes awaiting the word from their captain to open fire.

The submarine, after circling the ship several times, with only the tip of its periscope exposed, would generally come to the surface to interrogate the survivors, or in reality the "panic party," drifting around in their boats. It was part of a submarine command-



DEPTH CHARGE DROPPED BY A DESTROYER EXPLODING

The depth charges were cylinders containing from 300 to 600 pounds of high explosive and were usually called "ash-cans" by the sailors. They could be set to explode at any depth.

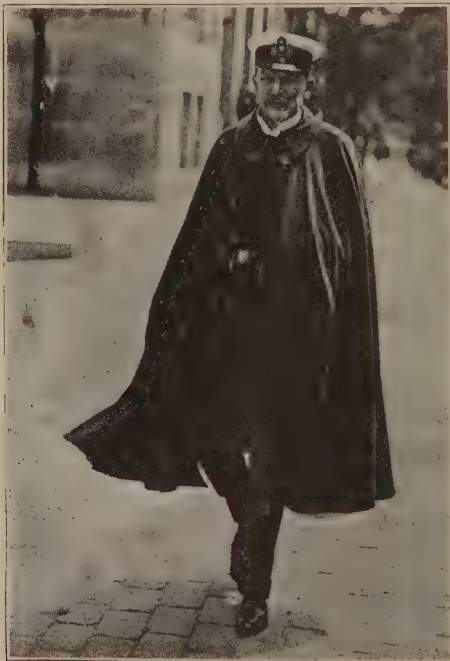
er's business to obtain as much information as possible relative to the character of the ship he had torpedoed, its cargo, destination, and all other pertinent facts. This was necessary in order to prove his claim of having sunk her.

THE SUBMARINE, EXULTING IN ITS VICTORY, IS CAUGHT.

In the meanwhile, the crew remaining on board the mystery ship would watch every movement of the submarine through peep-holes here and there, just as a cat watches a mouse before it springs to the attack. The unsuspecting submarine, full of satisfaction and flushed with the wine of victory, would be lying on the water interrogating the apparently grief-stricken survivors, when suddenly, from his concealed position on the bridge, the captain of the

ship would give the order to drop the false sides and open fire. The result was generally disastrous to the submarine.

The work of the mystery ships was hazardous to a degree and reflects the greatest credit on the entire English-speaking race, for the percentage of casualties was great. Notwithstanding this, however, there was never any lack of volunteers, for the duty was considered one of honor and glory.



ADMIRAL VON CAPELLE

The American Navy operated one mystery ship, officially known as the U. S. S. Santee, commanded by Captain David C. Hanrahan, U. S. Navy, and manned with a volunteer crew from the destroyers based at Queens-town. After several weeks of preparation, the Santee left Queenstown on the afternoon of December 27, 1917, en route to Bantry Bay for training. At 8:45 that night she was torpedoed by a submarine and completely disabled. The submarine evidently suspected the Santee of being a mystery ship and made no attempt to interrogate the survivors or to investigate the results of her attack. Fortunately, no one was injured, and on the following day the

Santee was towed into port. By this time the enemy was thoroughly aware of the existence of these decoy ships, and as the trick could no longer be successfully executed, no further mystery ships were operated by the American Navy.

THE SUCCESS OF THE MEASURES AGAINST THE SUBMARINE.

Above we have considered the methods employed in destroying submarines. Let us now consider the results accomplished.

The most effective measures used against the submarines are given below in the order of their value:

- (a) Depth charges.
- (b) Mines.
- (c) Torpedoes fired from the submarines.
- (d) Mystery ships.
- (e) Gun-fire.

A total of 205 German submarines were put out of action during the war. Of these, ninety per cent were destroyed by Great Britain, five per cent by the United States, and five per cent by France and Italy. These figures are an approximation, but they are the most accurate available at this time.

Contrary to the general belief, the number of enemy submarines operating at any one time was not great. The average number for the months of June, July and August, 1918, for example, was about thirty-three, of which twenty-three were operating around the British Isles and in the vicinity of the French coast, eight in the Mediterranean, and one or two off the American coast.

THE AVERAGE LENGTH OF A SUBMARINE CRUISE.

The average stay at sea of a submarine was about twenty-seven days for the U-boats, twenty days or less for the smaller or UB-boats, and from three to four months for the larger cruiser type of submarines. Almost two-thirds of this time was spent in making the passage to and from the operating areas, except for those boats which operated in the North Sea.

This great proportion of time spent on passage made it impossible for the enemy to maintain more than an aver-

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age of about eight or nine submarines to the westward of the British Isles and France. The popular impression seems to be that those areas were literally swarming with submarines and that they were attacking merchantmen in flotillas.

The following figures are of interest to the student of the Great War, and indicate very clearly the gradual decline of the submarine menace:

REVIEW OF THE GERMAN SUBMARINE SITUATION AT THE END OF THE WAR.

1. Number of Submarines available at beginning of the War. 28
Average number of Submarines available during Summer of 1917.....152
Number of Submarines available at end of the War.....168
Number of Submarines built during the War.....340
Number of Submarines building and fitting out at the end of the War..... 70
Number of Submarines lost during the War.....205
2. German Submarines on hand or available at the end of the War, according to types:
U-type..... 73
UB-type..... 60
UC-type..... 35
Total.....168
3. Summary of all German Submarines at the end of the War:
Losses.....205
Surrendered at Harwich.....138
Inspected in Germany..... 23
Building and fitting out..... 70
Miscellaneous..... 8
Total.....444
4. Summary of all Austrian Submarines at the end of the War:
Total built..... 35
Obsolete units..... 10
Losses..... 7
Total available..... 18
5. German Submarine Situation in January, 1917, as revealed by the statement of Captain Persius in the "Berliner Tageblatt," published November 18, 1918:

Average number operating during January, 1917.....	16
or 12% operating	
Average number under repair during January, 1917.....	28
or 20% under repair	
Average number resting during January, 1917.....	41
or 30% resting	
Average number training during January, 1917.....	53
or 38% trials and training.	

It is apparent from the foregoing that the American Navy was successful in supporting Land Power and furthering a successful decision on land, which, as was said in the beginning, was the chief mission of the fleets. How well we co-operated with the British Navy is expressed in the following letter which I received on November 16, 1918, from the First Sea Lord of the British Admiralty, Sir Rosslyn Wemyss, R. N., and which reads in part as follows:

"We recognize with feelings of gratitude the debt we owe to the United States Navy for its wholehearted support during the past eighteen months, not only in the anti-submarine campaign and extensive mine-laying program, but also in sending its battle squadron to reinforce the Grand Fleet.

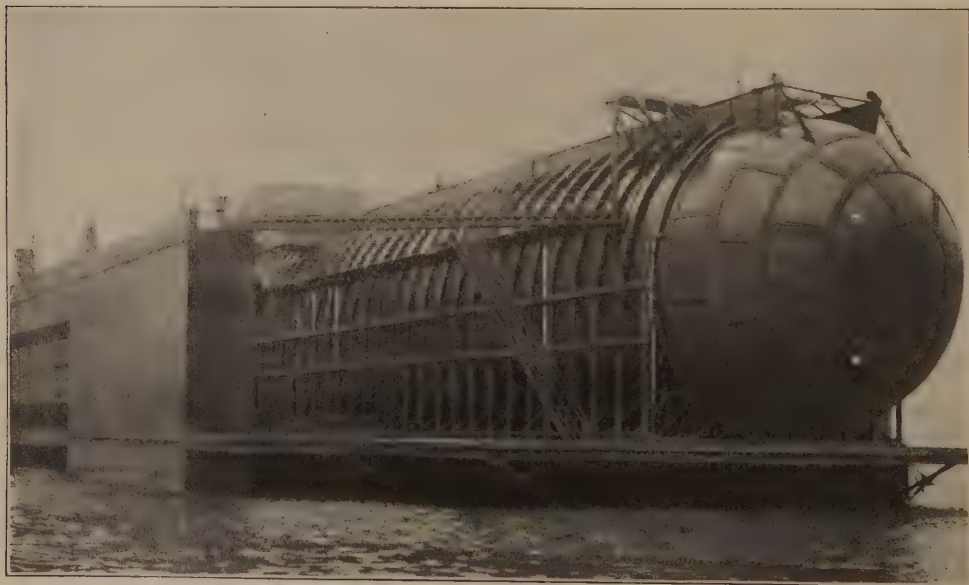
"We do not forget that your destroyers came to our assistance at a moment when our small craft were feeling the severe strain of three years' continuous warfare; we admire the singleness of purpose which has actuated your every effort and appreciate to the full the loyal way in which you have worked with us throughout.

"The close co-operation between our two services has, I venture to think, been one of the outstanding features of the war, and I sincerely trust that this association has been as agreeable to all of us as it has been to us. Future generations in both navies will always remember that their predecessors stood shoulder to shoulder during these momentous times to uphold the cause of Right and Justice."



"ZEBRA OF THE OCEAN WILDS"

H. M. S. Argus, aeroplane carrier to the British Navy, with her super-deck specially constructed so that the machines may take off from it. She forms a strange contrast to the battle-cruiser beyond, but her dazzle painting makes her otherwise conspicuous bulk less of a mark for the enemy.



A GERMAN WAR SECRET REVEALED

An immense submarine tester surrendered by the Germans which was displayed at Harwich, England. It was capable of accommodating three submarines at the same time. This huge dock was used to test the strength of the U-boats by means of air-pressure corresponding to the pressure of water.

Central News Service.



Torpedoed Mole at Zeebrugge

CHAPTER LXV

Zeebrugge and Ostend

A NAVAL EPIC OF SAINT GEORGE'S DAY

AFTER Jutland the High Seas Fleet kept closely to its base, and there was no naval engagement in which large ships participated. A British convoy was lost in the North Sea in October, 1917, and another in December. Some German patrol boats and an auxiliary cruiser were sunk and the Germans bombarded Yarmouth for the third time early in 1918, but generally only the ceaseless vigilance demanded from the fleets prevented the months from becoming unbearably monotonous. The brilliant operations against Zeebrugge and Ostend afforded a welcome relief.

These raids were contrary to an approved axiom of war, namely that ships cannot fight against forts without the co-operation of a land force. But in April British land forces were pre-occupied with Ludendorff's Flanders offensive, and it behooved the Senior Service to achieve its objectives unaided. There is a quality of almost impudent audacity in the plans evolved by Vice-Admiral Sir Roger Keyes, and a spirit of glorified "daredeviltry" among the bluejackets, marines and officers who volunteered for "an enterprise of unusual danger."

ZEEBRUGGE AND OSTEND FORM ADVANCED BASES.

As the Belgians retreated in October, 1914, the Germans advanced and occupied Zeebrugge and Ostend. The coast between these two ports forms the base of a triangle, whose other sides are two canals connecting Bruges with

Zeebrugge and Ostend. To Bruges came overland from Germany submarines and light surface craft which, fitted together, passed outwards to the sea (particularly through the Bruges-Zeebrugge Canal which was deeper), and constituted a grave menace to the sea communications of the British Army and the sea-borne trade and food supplies of the United Kingdom. The triangle provided an advance base for enemy raiders, fully 300 miles nearer to objects of attack than North Sea ports like Emden or Bremen.

THE AUDACIOUS PLANS TO REMOVE THE MENACE.

As early as November, 1917, plans for removing the peril were begun at the Admiralty under Sir Roger Keyes, and these were far enough advanced in February and March to allow of the intensive training of the *personnel* to proceed. Volunteers from the Grand Fleet and from other naval units shared the honor with the Dover Patrol.

The canals at Zeebrugge and Ostend are continued seawards by artificial harbors. At Zeebrugge as a precaution against the silt, a mole a mile long and about 90 yards wide curves like a protecting arm before the harbor's mouth. Its shore end is formed by a viaduct through whose piles the tides run freely.

The object of the projected expedition was to block the mouths of the canals where they ran into the harbors by sinking ships in the channels, and effect as much damage as possible upon the harbors, the mole and the

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fortifications. Several factors made the problem a difficult one. Near the Belgian coast the water, shallow and shoal-strewn, can be navigated only by vessels of light draught, which are usually small and slow. Darkness was absolutely essential because of the range of the shore batteries, and with

upon the eve of St. George's Day, April 22. There were monitors to shell the coast batteries, destroyers to "keep the ring" and engage any enemy force that might emerge to interfere, old gun-boats filled with cement to act as block-ships, motor launches to weave the curtain of smoke ahead and



SIR DAVID BEATTY, G.C.B.

While Vice-Admiral in command of the Battle cruiser fleet.

slow boats it was necessary to start at least three hours before dark. Thus the enterprise might be discovered by airplanes, Zeppelins or scouts, at the outset. A light on-shore wind to carry ahead the artificial smoke-screens, low visibility, and high water to allow of the approach of the block-ships to the canal mouth were other indispensable conditions.

CONDITIONS FINALLY ALLOW THE EXPEDITION TO START.

Finally after two attempts—unsuccessful because of the absence of one or other of these favoring elements—the expedition assembled its various units

lay navigation signals, coastal motor-boats to act as rescuers, obsolete submarines, ex-ferry boats and ubiquitous air-craft. All had their place in the plan. At Zeebrugge where the situation was more complex than at Ostend, three block-ships were to sink themselves across the exits of the canal. To make a diversion in order that the block-ships could get into the harbor far enough, two attacks were planned against the mole. At the sea-end landing parties were to do as much damage as possible to the batteries and to the sea-plane station and sheds upon the mole. Nearer the shore two obsolete submarines were to blow up the viaduct.

At a prearranged place the force divided, steering separate courses for Ostend and Zeebrugge, where already the motor launches were at work close inshore laying their smoke wreaths. The coastal motor-boats in the darkness had mapped out the inshore course and laid aids to navigation. Because of the long range of the coast batteries at least an hour and three-quarters for getting away before morning twilight was required, and working from this fact backward the expedition went according to programme in a very remarkable way. "For England and St. George!" signaled the Admiral-in-charge, Sir Roger Keyes, from the destroyer Warwick, as the Zeebrugge contingent faded into the oncoming darkness. "And may we give the dragon's tail a damned good twist," the Vindictive responded as she swung shorewards. Ahead of her rolled the smoke-screen, wrapped about her by the small craft.

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

THE SHIPS WHICH LAID ALONGSIDE THE MOLE.

The Vindictive, an old cruiser commanded by Captain A. F. B. Carpenter, and the Daffodil and the Iris, two ex-Liverpool ferryboats chosen for their great capacity, unsinkableness and light draught, were due to lay alongside the mole at midnight. Before St. George's Day was a minute old the cruiser was grating her fenders in the swell that surged across the outer wall.

gun-fire and shattered by the tossing of the ship—might reach the top of the mole. There had already been fearful destruction among the close-packed ranks awaiting disembarkation, but now the men swarmed across the narrow planks sheer into the guns' mouths carrying bombs and bayonets, mortars and scaling ladders. Then they disappeared into the smoke and the fire and the din, fighting their way along the mole, bombing sheds and



THE ONE-TIME FERRY BOATS, IRIS AND DAFFODIL

The Iris and Daffodil were quite unlike their slender Spring namesakes either in build or in function, for they were squat, buoyant and capacious, fit to navigate shallow waters, and satisfactory transports for considerable numbers. Their slow gait imposed a handicap (as did that of the miscellaneous small craft accompanying the contingent).

When she left the Warwick the wind had been onshore, but before she got in it shifted and began to blow the fog out to sea so that the apprehensive enemy sought to illuminate the dark night with the unearthly glare of starshells and "flaming onions." Seawards the monitors now roared forth their shells, shorewards the flames were leaping.

The Vindictive was fitted on one side with a high false deck and light drawbridges with a hinge in the middle. These were lowered on to the mole but the current was strong, and it needed all the force of the Daffodil to pin the Vindictive bodily alongside so that the bridges—many of them splintered by

men, and even a destroyer surprised at anchor inside the sea-wall. The Iris was provided with grapnels but she could not grip the mole, although three officers lost their lives in heroic endeavor to fasten her in. Captain Carpenter, therefore, ordered her to push in on the far side of the Vindictive and such men as could scrambled across the bigger ship on to the mole.

THE TWO REMAINING FEATURES OF THE PLAN SUCCEEDED.

Fourteen minutes after the Vindictive's arrival, there was a tremendous roar and a huge tower of flame and debris and bodies shot up into the black sky. Submarine C3 (Lieutenant Richard D. Sandford) had accom-

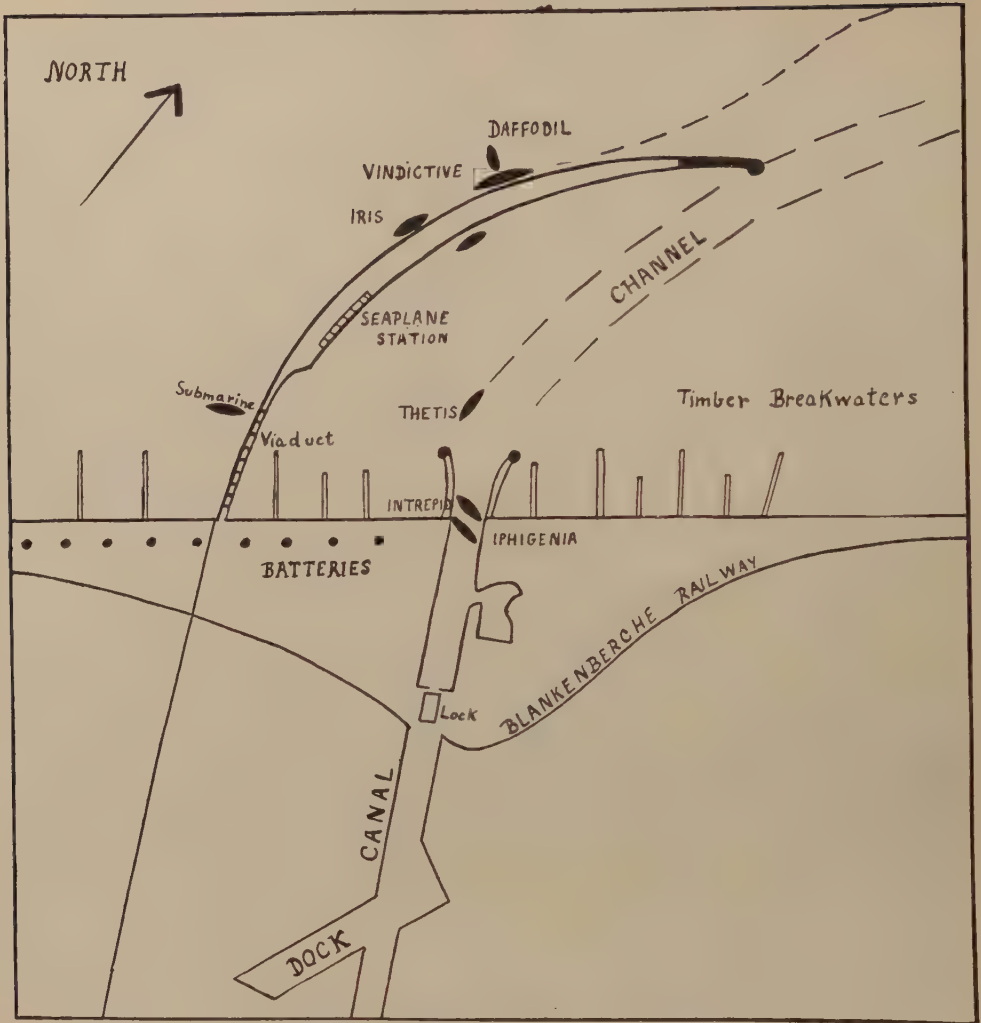


DIAGRAM OF THE HARBOR OF ZEEBRUGGE

plished its mission. Running beneath the viaduct under a hail of machine gun fire from the Germans above, her commander lighted the fuses and slipped into a motor-boat. The propeller was fouled and the men had only a couple of oars and a couple of minutes between them and death. Though all were wounded, yet they made good their escape and were picked up by a motor launch beyond the harbor.

The block-ships in the meanwhile had made the entrance, and led by the *Thetis* under a tornado of fire, made straight for the opening of the canal, where the latter fouled her propeller

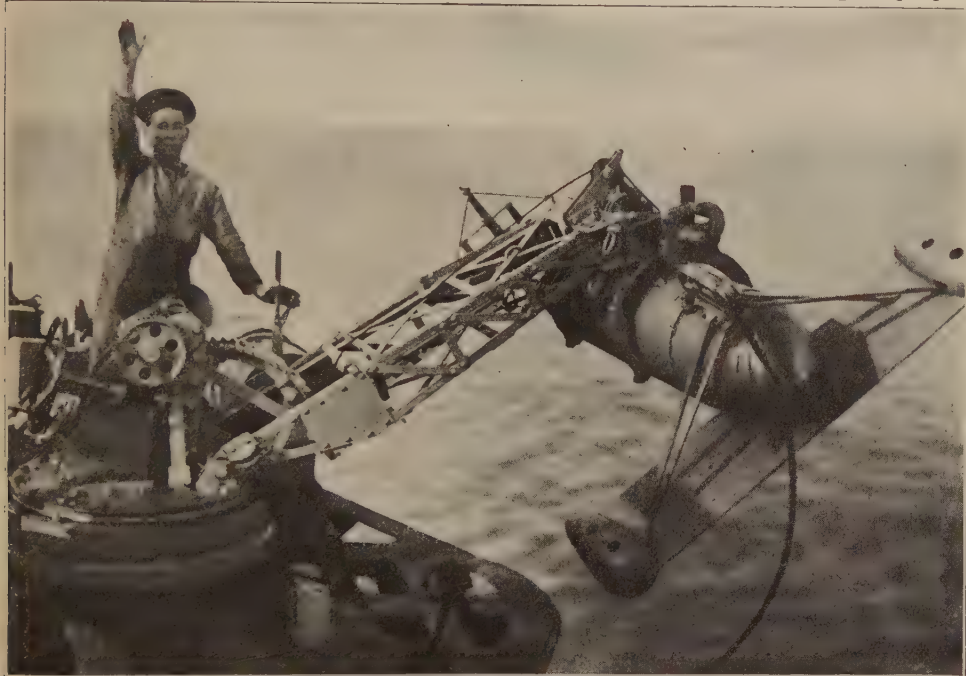
in the defense-nets, and ceased to make way. She fired a green rocket, thus signaling to the *Intrepid* and *Iphigenia* to pass her on the starboard and avoid the nets, and then sank slowly, engaging the nearest shore battery until her own smoke made it impossible to continue firing, and by a final effort swinging her head so that she obstructed the dredged channel of the canal. A motor launch embarked the surviving members of her crew and then ran the gauntlet of the harbor mouth out to sea.

The *Intrepid* reached the mouth of the canal, and went right in with guns

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

firing point-blank at her from both banks. Then her commander, Lieutenant Bonham-Carter, calmly manoeuvred her into position and fired the charges which sank her. Her crew abandoned the ship, rowed down the canal in two cutters and a skiff, and were picked up in the harbor by a British destroyer and a motor launch.

only the Daffodil's little hooter was left. At last all who could come were aboard and the vessels shoved off. While the Vindictive lay against the mole, though her super-structure received fearful punishment, her hull had been safe. Now this was in danger as the big shore guns spat forth viciously and the retreating ships put



THE PARAVANE INVENTED BY LIEUTENANT BURNEY

The paravane was an effective contrivance used against mines and submarines. One kind was a torpedo set to swim at a fixed depth which was dragged behind a ship to destroy submerged submarines. The other variety was attached in pairs like kites to the bow of the ship. If the wire anchoring a mine touched the cable of the paravane it slid down until it reached a saw edge on the paravane, by which it was cut, and the mine rose to the surface.

N. Y. Times.

The Iphigenia in the wake of the Intrepid rammed a dredge with a barge in tow, crashed through and drove the barge ahead of her into the canal. Lieutenant Billyard-Leake then steered his ship into a gap between the Intrepid and the eastern bank, and sank her.

THE SIGNAL IS SOUNDED TO RECALL THE STORMING PARTY.

Meanwhile the landing parties from the Vindictive had spent a feverish hour upon the slippery blood-strewn deck of the mole. As soon as Captain Carpenter saw the block-ships sunk he gave the signal for recall. The Vindictive's siren had been shot away and

on every ounce of steam and set their smoke-boxes emitting dense clouds of smoke to screen themselves until at last they ran out of range. Thus the Vindictive turned and made for home—"a great black shape, with funnels gapped and leaning out of the true, flying a vast steamer of flame as her stokers worked her up, her the almost wreck—to a final display of seventeen knots. Her forward funnel was a sieve; her decks were a dazzle of sparks; but she brought back intact the horseshoe nailed to it, which Sir Roger Keyes had presented to her commander."

The wind that blew back the smoke-

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

screen at Zeebrugge served the expedition against Ostend even worse. The coastal motor boats had lighted the approaches and the ends of the piers with calcium flares and made a smoke cloud which hid this fact from the enemy. Suddenly the wind changed and revealed the navigating flares to the Germans who promptly extinguished them with gunfire. Thereafter in the darkness the two ships, *Sirius* and *Brilliant*, could not find the entrance to the harbor, and instead were forced to sink themselves at a point about four hundred yards east of the piers. Their crews were taken off by motor launches.

THE VINDICTIVE FINALLY SUNK IN THE OSTEND CANAL.

Some three weeks later in the early hours of morning in renewed attempt the *Vindictive* groped her way through the smoke screen off Ostend harbor and headed for the entrance. This time there was no preliminary bombardment. The *Vindictive* found the flagship's light-buoy and bore up for where a coastal motor boat waited by a calcium flare. Fifteen minutes before she was due at the harbor mouth the signal for the monitors far out to sea and the siege batteries of the Royal Marine Artillery in Flanders to open

fire was given. There was a while of tremendous uproar and through it all the old *Vindictive* was working toward the entrance. Then a sea-fog came on and blanketed the lights, and in darkness the *Vindictive* twice crossed the entrance to the harbor. At her third turn there came a rift in the mist and she saw the entrance clear, steamed in. Guns found her at once. She was hit every few seconds after she entered but she laid her nose to the eastern pier and prepared to swing her 320 feet of length across the channel. Then a shell from the shore batteries struck the conning tower and she began to sink at an angle of about forty degrees to the pier and refused to answer the helm. She was hard and fast so the explosive tore the bottom plates and bulkheads from her and she sank on to the bottom of the channel, her work done.

As was afterward learned the channels were not permanently blocked, but the Germans were subjected to much inconvenience. For a time only the smaller vessels could go out and dredging operations were made difficult. Later a channel was dug around the blockships which served as a means of escape. The exploit itself is one of the most stirring in naval history.



"H. M. S. VINDICTIVE AT DOVER AFTER ZEEBRUGGE"



GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING
Commander-in-Chief, American Expeditionary Forces



General Headquarters A. E. F. at Chaumont

CHAPTER LXVI

The American Army in France

A PERIOD OF TRAINING FOLLOWED BY FIGHTING UNDER FRENCH DIRECTION

EDITED BY MAJOR GEORGE C. MARSHALL, JR.

General Staff, U. S. A.

WHEN the United States entered the Great War it is probable that no one dreamed of the extent of the effort that would be expended within the next nineteen months. During that period the armies of the United States were increased from something like 200,000 men in the Regular Army and National Guard taken together to the immense number of 3,757,624 men of whom 2,086,000 (including forty-two divisions) were transported to France. In all during the period of the war the combatant forces of the United States, Army, Marines and Navy, amounted to about 4,800,000 men. Behind these were other millions of registrants from whom additional millions of soldiers might be drawn.

WHY AMERICAN TROOPS WERE SENT TO FRANCE EARLY.

The first plan of the American military authorities had been to train an army in the United States, and afterward to transport it as a unit to Europe. The urgent request of the French Mission that American forces be sent immediately to France to counteract the serious depression created by the failure of General Nivelle's offensive in April 1917, led to a change of plan, and it was determined to conduct a part of the training in France. In

May, 1917, Major General John J. Pershing was summoned to Washington and ordered to select a staff and to proceed to Europe there "to command all the land forces of the United States operating in continental Europe and in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland," and "to establish, after consultation with the French War Office, all necessary bases, lines of communication, etc., and make all the incidental arrangements essential to active participation at the front."

GENERAL PERSHING GIVEN LARGE AUTHORITY IN EUROPE.

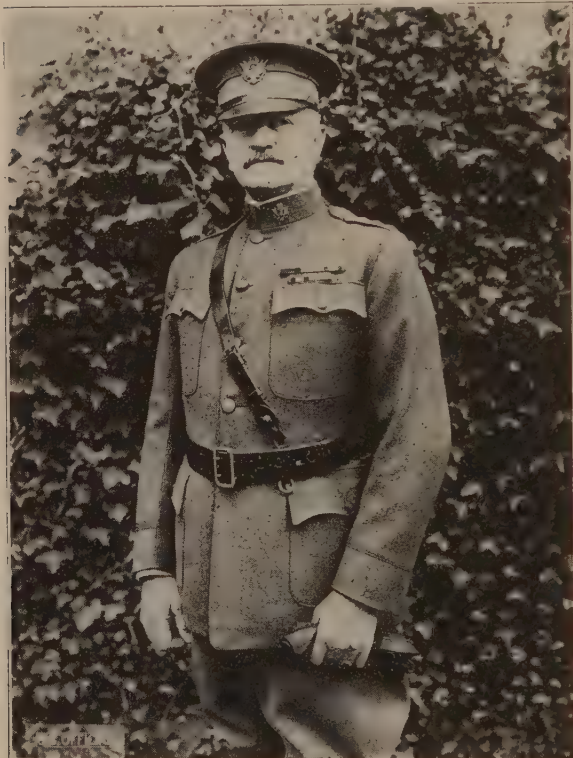
These instructions were simple but at the same time inclusive. In effect they made Major General Pershing (soon raised to the rank of full General) dictator of American military affairs in Europe. It is probable that never before had a Commander-in-Chief been given such absolute freedom from the restraints of civil administration. Certainly no previous commander in any of the wars in which the United States had been engaged had ever had such authority as was exercised by General Pershing during the period of his command in Europe.

On May 28th, 1917, General Pershing with a small staff embarked on the Baltic, and landed in Liverpool

twelve days later. After a few days in London, he proceeded to Paris, arriving on June 13th. A day or two of public receptions, and staff headquarters were established on the Rue de Constantine, and all went to work upon the plans to make American participation in the war effective. Frequent consultations

ity of offensive warfare, the warfare of movement as contrasted with the warfare of position, to which the Allied forces had so long been condemned. He believed in the American soldier, his bravery, his aggressiveness and his intelligence, and foresaw that the American forces when they had arrived in sufficient numbers and had been properly trained, would be able to stand against the foe and eventually to drive him back out of his entrenched positions and into the open.

Though only 1308 men had arrived in May, 14,912 in June, and 3,900 in July, the American commander saw them as the advance guard of a great host and the staff made plans accordingly. The war presented for the United States many difficult and unusual problems. For France the transport of men and supplies was comparatively simple. The organization of the Ministry of War was complete. The plants for the manufacture of munitions and other supplies already existing had been greatly enlarged. For Great Britain, the distance across the Channel was so small, that with proper guard against submarines, the service was little more than a ferry.



GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING

with the experts of the French Ministry of War were held, and with General Pétain at the front.

THE VISION OF A GREAT AMERICAN ARMY IN FRANCE.

General Pershing either carried with him or else soon formed certain definite conceptions of what American participation should be. These he did not change, though sometimes forced by circumstances to delay their execution. One was the vision of a great self-contained American Army, taking its place in the long battle line on an equality with the British and French organizations which had held so long. Another was a firm belief in the desirabil-

THE DIFFICULTIES IN THE WAY OF WAGING WAR IN EUROPE.

The soldiers and the supplies of the United States had to be brought across 3,000 miles of sea. Previously they had to be collected from a country quite as wide. The Allied supply of food, homegrown and imported, was barely sufficient for their own needs. Manifestly it was necessary to bring across not only the men themselves, but the greater part of their supplies. The northern ports of France were occupied by Great Britain who had built up an elaborate service of supply between them and the front. The central district of France was occupied by the French depots and services, and the railroads could do no more. There

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were left then for the United States only the western ports and the section of the country south and east of that occupied by the French and British. This meant an additional railway haul of approximately 500 miles.

Facilities at the western ports of France were inadequate, but capable of development. For various reasons

intermediate between the base and the front immense construction projects were also undertaken. At Gièvres was built the most extensive series of warehouses ever erected, containing four and a half million square feet of storage space and 243 miles of railroad track. Other warehouses were constructed at Tours, Blois, and Orleans, great baker-



AMERICAN SOLDIERS CLEANING UP A FRENCH VILLAGE

Army rules regarding sanitation and the long-established habits and customs of peasants did not always agree. The inhabitants of the little villages in which troops were billeted looked with amazement upon the scrubbing, sweeping and splashing of their strange guests, who did not hesitate to remove their manure piles and clean out their stables.

New York Times

the American choice fell upon St. Nazaire on the Loire, and Bassens, a suburb of Bordeaux, on the Gironde, though use was also made of Nantes, and La Pallice in the same regions as the former. Later Brest was developed, particularly as a landing place for troops, and Rochefort and Marseilles were used to a less extent. Le Havre was the port for men and supplies coming through Great Britain. More than three fifths of the supplies however were landed at St. Nazaire and Bassens, where piers were built and heavy cranes installed.

Large warehouses were constructed in this base section. In the section in-

ies were built at Dijon and Gièvres, and at Tours was located the salvage depot.

THE IMPORTANT WORK OF THE ENGINEERS IN FRANCE.

There were dozens of other places at which remount stations, motor service and repair parks, and ordnance depots and repair shops were established, as at Tours, Bourges, and Nevers, for example. Hospitals were located near every important station, and also several large hospitals were erected in Auvergne in anticipation of future need. All of these projects were undertaken by the Engineer Corps of the A. E. F. The labor was chiefly per-

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tormed by American soldiers, and German prisoners, though civilians and Chinese coolies were also used whenever available. In all, 831 separate projects had been undertaken by the Engineers before the signing of the Armistice, and the principal part of the work had been completed.

HOW SUPPLIES REACHED THE SOLDIER AT THE FRONT.

The standard-gauge roads carried men and supplies into the intermediate zone, and frequently into the advanced zone. From the intermediate warehouses and supply stations, narrow-gauge roads (about two feet be-



THE DESTROYER JACOB JONES, TORPEDOED, DECEMBER 6, 1917

THE QUESTION OF TRANSPORTATION VITAL TO THE ARMY.

Transportation was vital to the Army, and a commission of experts was sent to France to study the existing French railway system. They found the track generally in fair condition, but a deficiency of rolling stock. Contrary to the general impression little new trunk line track was constructed, though, in some cases, a third track was added to existing facilities. The thousand miles and over of new track was chiefly in and around the ports and warehouses in order to expedite loading and unloading. American locomotives and freight cars were shipped to France. In some cases it was necessary to enlarge tunnels or raise bridges in order to allow these larger units to pass. Mr. W. W. Atterbury, General Manager of the Pennsylvania Railroad, was commissioned Brigadier General and made Director of Transportation, and did magnificent work. Transportation was organized after the manner of a great American railway system, though, of course, without the necessity for showing a profit from operations.

tween rails) were constructed, which carried supplies further, but the chief reliance was upon the mobile motor truck which was used to a greater extent in this war than ever before. The tables of organization for each division called for 650 trucks and the various trains, including ambulances, etc., on the march stretched out for a distance of nearly thirty miles.

It may be said here that the A. E. F. never had enough trucks. They were on the docks in American ports but the cargo space was never available to ship a full supply. Meanwhile the Signal Corps constructed independent telephone and telegraph lines linking all the ports, warehouses, and stations with the General Headquarters which General Pershing established in September, 1917, in the permanent barracks of a French Infantry regiment at Chaumont.

THE FIRST DIVISION IS ORGANIZED AND BEGINS TRAINING.

The troops which arrived in France in June and July, 1917, were the 16th, 18th, 26th and 28th Infantry regiments of the Regular Army (though containing seventy per cent of recruits),

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and two regiments of Marines, a brigade of artillery, a regiment of engineers, together with Signal Corps and Aviation units. A Battalion of the 16th Infantry paraded in Paris on July 4, and aroused tumultuous enthusiasm. All Paris was interested in the stalwart men with broad hats and the strange uniforms who swung along the boulevards. These troops (except the Marines), composed the First Division under command of Major General W. L. Sibert, and were transferred from

This unit of 28,000 men was about twice the size of the French or German division.

THE ARMY GOES TO SCHOOL TO LEARN THE NEW WARFARE.

The American soldier, even the veteran, had much to learn of the new character of warfare, and the same is true of the officers. As additional units which had received little training in the United States came over, this need was more and more felt. A system of training schools was worked out



FRENCH SOLDIERS INSTRUCTING U. S. MARINES

the vicinity of St. Nazaire to the Gondrecourt area for training in the complexities of trench warfare. Here they were housed not in tents, but were billeted upon the inhabitants of neighboring villages. A French Chasseur division, the Forty-seventh, was placed beside them to serve as a guide. The American Artillery had gone to Valdahon, but the French division had its guns, and worked with the American infantry.

The old American division was unsuited to the conditions of this war. General Pershing after much thought and consultation with the French and British authorities fixed upon the size and organization of the American division which is described in Chapter LI.

when not more than 40,000 men were on French soil and was still in the process of development and enlargement when the Armistice was signed. Many of the earlier instructors were British and French officers detached for this purpose.

The schools included the General Staff College at Langres for the training of staff officers and over 550 officers were graduated. The School of the Line for the training of line officers graduated four classes; the Infantry Specialist School for officers and non-commissioned officers graduated nearly 5,400; while the Machine Gun School graduated over a thousand men, and the Army Engineer School trained 13,400 men.

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WHERE SOME OF THE MANY SCHOOLS WERE LOCATED.

The Signal School, the Sanitary School, the Gas School, the Anti-Aircraft School, the Intelligence School, and several others for special branches were established. In addition there were Army Candidate Schools at Langres and La Valbonne to train men for commissions. There were Artillery Schools for officers at Haussimont (soon transferred to Angers), and at Saumur, and at the latter place enlisted men were also given training to qualify them for commissions. A Tank School and a Tractor Artillery School were also established.

There were also three large Corps Schools. Fifteen aviation centres were created, some of which dealt with balloons while others devoted themselves to instruction and practice in observation, bombardment, artillery direction, aerial machine-gunnery, etc. The largest were at Tours and Issoudun. Later an instruction centre was also established at Foggia, Italy.

The principal Ordnance School was at Is-sur-Tille, but there were four others. The Gas Defense School was at Chaumont, and there was a School for Military Police at Autun, a School for Motor Transport at Decize, a Pigeon School at Saizerais, a Military Music School at Chaumont, a Railway Transportation School at Angers, and a Chaplains' School at Le Mans. While these schools were being established, full use was made of the French schools and of the instruction offered by the British.

At all of these schools men who had supposed that their pupil days were over set themselves seriously to learn. In fact the determination and the seriousness of these students, some mere youths, others mature men of established position in times of peace, were often noted with approval by their French and English instructors.

OTHER DIVISIONS SOON FOLLOWED THE FIRST TO FRANCE.

Meanwhile the units composing the First Division were followed by the Twenty-sixth Division (New England National Guard), next came the organ-

izations which formed the Second Division, which contained a brigade of Marines and a brigade of Infantry, then the Forty-second (National Guard from twenty-seven states), and the Forty-first (National Guard from the Pacific Coast). These were measurably complete before January 1, 1918, though lacking in certain equipment. The Second was sent to the Bourmont zone for further training, the Twenty-sixth (Yankee) to Neufchâteau, and the Forty-second (Rainbow) first to Vaucouleurs then to St. Blin and finally to Rolanpont. The Forty-first was assigned to base and replacement duty, and did not participate as an organization in front line operations, though certain of its artillery units aided the Seventy-ninth.

It may be well here to mention the numbering of the divisions which were the real combat units. It was planned that the numbers from one through twenty-five should indicate Regular Army divisions, the next fifty numbers should be assigned to National Guard divisions, while the numbers above seventy-five should be assigned to the National Army of selected men. As a matter of fact it was found necessary in order to fill the ranks to assign drafted men to all the organizations, so that a division nominally composed of Guard units from one or two states often contained, during the last months of the war, men from widely separated sections of the country. The order of the War Department of August 2, 1918, abolishing all distinctions and consolidating all three into the Army of the United States was logical under the circumstances.

MEN HURRIED TO FRANCE DURING THE SUMMER OF 1918.

Meanwhile owing to shortage of transportation, the number of men sent to France did not increase proportionately in the first months of 1918 over the last three months of 1917. Gradually, however, other divisions appeared in France. The Thirty-second and Third were the first to arrive during the new year and April saw the arrival by way of England of the Seventy-seventh, or Metropolitan Division,

HISTORY OF THE WORLD WAR

composed chiefly of drafted men from New York City and Long Island, the first of the National Army divisions to reach France, and of the Fifth Division *via* Bordeaux. From this time the movement was so rapid that the arrival of separate divisions can no longer be chronicled here. Troop arrivals in France passed 100,000 in April, 233,000 in May, 230,000 in

infantry and machine-gunners killed, wounded or captured. Only from the United States could any considerable number of men be had and English shipping was hurriedly placed at American disposal, but at first only for the transport of infantry and machine-gunners. The resulting check in the flow of American artillery, engineer, aviation, and other special troops,



THE LEVIATHAN, FORMERLY THE VATERLAND, AS A U. S. TRANSPORT

June, until in July the stupendous total of 313,410 arrived in France. The number fell a little in August, reached 310,765 in September, and was still above 200,000 in October.

For this sudden increase there was good reason. The collapse of Russia had permitted the transfer of more than fifty enemy divisions to the Western Front, and with these reinforcements the great German offensives initiated on March 21st, crushed the Fifth British Army, cut vital rail lines connecting the French and British, and quickly absorbed all the Allied reserves. The German losses were heavy but their opponents' were enormous, particularly in guns, and in

agreed to by General Pershing at the urgent demand of the French and British, was later seriously to embarrass him in forming an American combat army and in the development of the Service of Supply to meet the increased requirements of the two millions of Americans who reached France.

HOW TWO MILLION MEN CROSSED THE ATLANTIC.

The crisis was exceedingly grave. Allied morale had suffered a serious depression and the enemy was triumphant. The American troops already in France had shown their quality in minor operations. Even if not ready for active fighting they could relieve veteran regiments in quiet sectors in

the line and in reserve. The Army transports were crowded and the German ships taken over were converted into transports. The Shipping Board purchased all suitable ships it could procure, the British and French governments diverted to troop transportation all the vessels they could spare. Eighty-seven Dutch boats in United States ports were commandeered and considerable Japanese and

plies was New York, with Newport News second. Smaller numbers and amounts were shipped from Baltimore, Philadelphia, Boston, Portland, and from Canadian ports. Over a million men were landed in Great Britain, principally at Liverpool and transported across the Channel. Not a single American vessel was torpedoed on its eastward voyage. The whole accomplishment is unique in history.



AMERICAN TROOPS AND MASCOT IN LORRAINE

Scandinavian shipping was chartered. Meanwhile the construction of the American shipyards was beginning to be important.

Including the cross-Channel fleet in European waters the American army had at its disposal for men, animals and supplies, a tonnage of 3,800,000 tons. In all 5,150,000 tons of freight were transported before the Armistice, the greater part in American vessels. Of the troop transportation, forty-nine per cent were carried in British vessels, forty-five per cent in American, and the remainder by Italian, French, and Russian vessels. The principal embarkation port both for men and sup-

THE FIRST AND THE TWENTY-SIXTH GO INTO THE TRENCHES

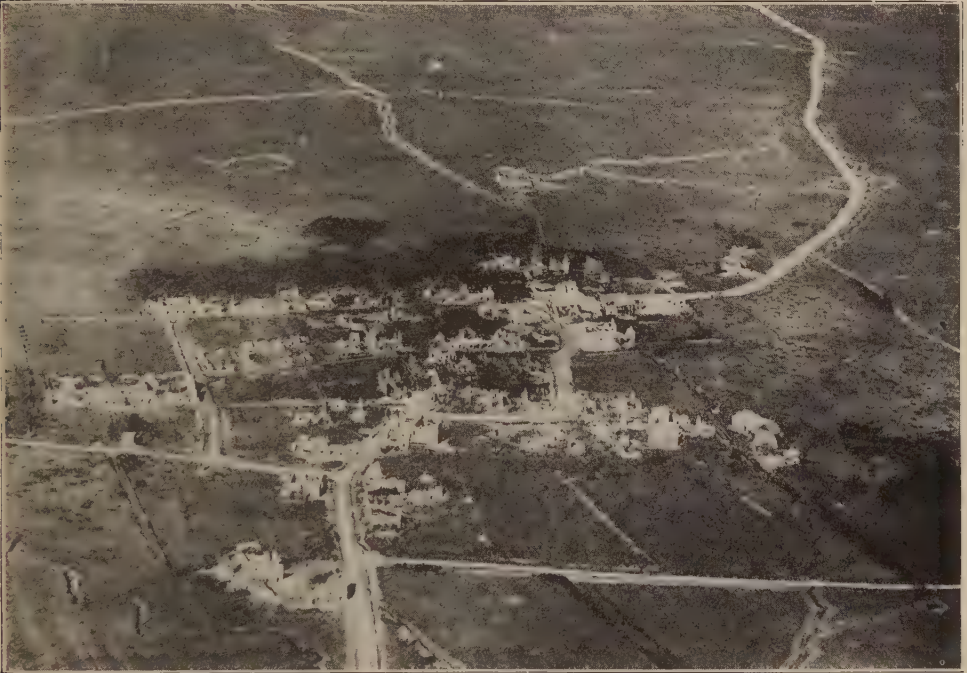
Now let us turn to the soldiers undergoing training in France. The First Division was naturally the first to reach the trenches. After some weeks of training in the Gondrecourt area it was moved to Sommervillers, east of Nancy. The battalions then went into the line between French units and worked under the direction and advice of French officers. On the morning of October 23, Battery C of the Sixth Artillery, fired the first shot. Soon a German trench raid occurred, and the Americans lost three men as already mentioned on page 751. When all the

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battalions had had their turn in this quiet sector of the Lorraine trenches they were withdrawn, November 21, for further training in open warfare, after which the division went into line north of Toul on the front of the Thirty-second French Army Corps, leaving one Infantry Brigade in reserve near Gondrecourt.

The Twenty-sixth, the first National Guard division in the line, passed into

in the sector north of Toul, as the latter division was ordered to the great battle in Picardy. On April 20, after a heavy bombardment a German attack was delivered upon the trenches around Seicheprey. The 102nd Regiment of the Twenty-sixth was forced to fall back, with considerable loss, though resisting tenaciously. Fighting continued through the next day when the trenches were recovered. This so-



SEICHEPREY SHOWING THE SURROUNDING TRENCHES

The little village of Seicheprey on the southern side of the St. Mihiel salient, saw some bitter fighting as the opposing trenches ran all around the village. Here a part of the Twenty-sixth Division was attacked April 20, 1918, and driven back, but the town was soon recovered. During the St. Mihiel operation, the town was destroyed.

N. Y. Times

the organization of the Eleventh French Corps in February, 1918, north of the Aisne, on the Chemin des Dames. This sector had been calm for several months following the desperate fighting of 1917, but the newcomers soon enlivened the every-day operations, by a series of patrols and trench raids. A considerable German raid was repulsed and the New Englanders began to feel that they were ready for anything. The Twenty-sixth was withdrawn from the Chemin des Dames March 18, for its open warfare training, but it was suddenly ordered to relieve the First

called battle of Seicheprey was the most important operation in which American troops had been engaged. The initial German success was much exploited both to hearten the Germans and to discourage the French.

THE FORTY-SECOND AND THE SECOND HAVE THEIR TURN.

The Forty-second (Rainbow) Division went under fire for the first time framed by the Seventh French Corps near Lunéville, and had much the same experiences as the other two divisions. A company of the 168th Regiment was attacked near Badonviller, on the

night of March 4, but did not lose a single prisoner, and inflicted a loss of fifty men. On March 19, the First and Forty-second were inspected by Secretary Baker, then in France, and the next day he visited the Second.

The Second Division, after finishing its preliminary training in the Bourmont area, was sent into the line for trench warfare instruction in March,

More were in training in France, about 300,000 in all, and more were arriving. It seemed that the dream of an autonomous American Army was to be realized. Just then came the great German offensive, threatening the Allied existence, which postponed this hope for months. The American military authorities from the first had favored a unified High Command, but the Brit-



FRENCH RECOGNITION OF AMERICAN BRAVERY

General Gaucher of the French Army is here shown decorating Major (later Colonel) William J. Donovan, and Private James Quigley of the 165th regiment (the old 69th regiment, New York National Guard) at Croismare, France, on March 18, 1918. This regiment was a part of the famous Forty-Second, or Rainbow Division, composed of units from many states.

U. S. Official

1918, and headquarters were established at Sommedieu, near those of the Tenth French Army Corps under which it was to work. Here it broke up the quiet of the zone by frequent raids into No Man's Land, and repulsed a small German raid near Maizey. The French officers had difficulty in moderating the ardor of the troops.

THE GERMAN DRIVE HINDERS THE FORMATION OF AN AMERICAN ARMY.

General Pershing now (March 21) had four divisions which had been under fire, one of which, the First, being ready to participate in battle.

ish and the Italians had held back. Now in face of imminent disaster all hesitation ended and General Foch was placed in supreme direction of the British, French and American armies.

Before the final decision had been made General Pershing hastened to General Foch and placed all the American troops at his disposal. The British and French commanders would have preferred that these forces be used as reinforcements and replacements for their armies already organized. General Pershing, while ready and willing to give every assistance necessary to save the situation, insisted

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that no organization smaller than a brigade or a regiment be framed within the larger foreign organization and that no action be taken which would later prevent the organization of a distinctively American army. As a result, the First Division moved from the St. Mihiel front to Picardy and was attached to the Fifth French Army, then in reserve. This division was now

broken over the Chemin des Dames in a great surprise attack and were on their way toward the Marne and Paris.

WHAT THE BATTLE OF CANTIGNY MEANT TO THE ALLIES.

The battle of Cantigny, compared with the Somme or Verdun, was insignificant, but the results were hardly less important. It demonstrated the fighting qualities of the American sol-



STARTING OUT TO RAID THE ENEMY TRENCHES

American units were generally brigaded for a time with French units or incorporated in a larger French organization while undergoing training in trench warfare. Here are a few men from the 168th Infantry, (formerly the 3d Iowa) Forty-second Division, in company with French instructors undertaking a daylight trench raid near Badonviller on March 17, 1918. U. S. Official

commanded by Major General R. L. Bullard, later to command an army himself. After a week of rest and training it was ready for action and marched north to relieve two French divisions of General Debeney's First French Army on the battle front near Montdidier. The artillery was very active and on May 28, the 28th Infantry of the First Division, assisted by French tanks, captured the village of Cantigny, and held it against strong German counter-attacks. The news of this first American offensive was a welcome stimulus to British and French morale. Only the day before the Germans had

dier—that he was brave, aggressive and tenacious. Both General Pétain and Premier Clemenceau appeared to congratulate the division. It meant that the four divisions of which so much has already been said could furnish 100,000 men for front line work, and General Pershing insisted that those whose training had not yet been completed would soon prove themselves equally efficient. Already behind the French front were the Thirty-second, the Third and the Fifth. Behind the British front were ten divisions, lately arrived, the Thirty-fifth, the Eighty-second, the Thirty-third,

the Twenty-seventh, the Fourth, the Twenty-eighth, the Eightieth, the Thirtieth, the Seventy-seventh, and the Seventy-eighth. Of these the Twenty-seventh and the Thirtieth remained with the British Army to the Armistice, and their record is told in Chapter LXXIV.

FIGHTING UNDER FRENCH COMMAND FOR TWO MONTHS.

For nearly two months the American units fought chiefly under French

Paris road, to fill a gap in the line of the Sixth French Army. Here it blocked the advance of the enemy on Paris and bent back his line near Bouresches.

Next Belleau Wood was bombarded and on June 10th, a portion of it was taken by the assault of the Fourth Brigade (Marines). The central portion was captured the next day and held against violent counter-assaults. Later, on June 25th, the remainder of



HONORING THE DEAD OF THE SECOND DIVISION

The first important operation of the Second Division was the capture of Belleau Wood by the Marine Brigade in June 1918. The brigade was cited in general orders of the Sixth French Army and the name of the wood changed to the Wood of the Marine Brigade. A French memorial society is decorating the graves of the fallen.

U. S. Official

direction. The Second Division, commanded by Major General O. L. Bundy, was transferred from the Sommedieue sector near Verdun, to a position in reserve northwest of Paris. On the night of May 30th the Division was under orders to march northward the following morning to relieve the First Division at Cantigny, when the plans were suddenly changed and on the following day the division was rushed by motor trucks and marching to a position on the north bank of the Marne across the Château-Thierry-

the wood was taken and the Commander of the Sixth Army issued a General Order changing the name of Belleau Wood to the 'Wood of the Marine Brigade.' The Third Brigade (Infantry) carried the village of Vaux and the wood of La Roche, an operation equally important, on July 1. Both brigades were cited. The Division had engaged five German divisions in whole or in part in one of the most dramatic incidents of the American participation in the war. On July 10, after more than a month of continuous



A VIEW OF VAUX FROM AN AIRPLANE

There are several towns named Vaux in France. This is the Vaux, near Château-Thierry, which was snatched from the Germans by the Third Brigade, Second Division, on July 1, 1918. For this and the capture of the Wood of La Roche, it was cited in General Orders of the Sixth French Army, as the Marine Brigade, the other infantry brigade of the Division, had been for the capture of Belleau Wood.

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VIEW OF FAMOUS TOWN OF CHÂTEAU-THIERRY

Château-Thierry on a bend of the Marne is a town of which few persons in the United States had ever heard before 1918. As it stood at the point of the German salient the fighting which took place on both sides of the salient for many miles is often vaguely called the battle of Château-Thierry though as a matter of fact the fighting in the immediate vicinity of the town was not so hard as at other points.

U. S. Official

fighting, it was relieved by the Twenty-sixth Division.

THE THIRD DIVISION TAKES ITS STAND ON THE MARNE.

Meanwhile the Third Division under Major General Joseph T. Dickman had been about to relieve the Twenty-sixth in the Southern Woevre sector, when it received orders to join the Sixth French Army and was assigned to rein-

Foiled in the attempt to cross the Marne and drive on Paris, the desperate Germans attempted, July 15th, to widen the Marne salient, by cutting the French lines between Epernay and Châlons, on both sides of Rheims, hoping to destroy General Gouraud's army in the Champagne. The story is told in Chapter LXII. In this action the Forty-second near Suippes, and



CAMOUFLAGED HEADQUARTERS OF TWENTY-SIXTH DIVISION

The Twenty-sixth, or Yankee Division, composed of National Guard units from the New England states was one of the first divisions to reach France and was engaged at several points, including the Second Marne, St. Mihiel and Meuse-Argonne, east of the river. Here are the camouflaged headquarters while in a comparatively quiet sector.

U. S. Official

force the Thirty-eighth French Corps, between Château-Thierry and Dormans. On the morning of June 1st, the motorized machine-gun battalion aided in repulsing the attack on Château-Thierry. For more than a month until the Germans gave up hope of crossing the Marne, the machine-gunnery of the Third Division, with the other elements of the Division which came up piecemeal and took their places among French troops wherever needed, were holding the river. Later the division was concentrated on the river at Mezey, and for nearly two months was continuously engaged.

the Third at Mezey, took a brilliant part. Several units of the Twenty-eighth were also engaged, mingled with French divisions. All received high praise from the French officers. The 38th Infantry (Third Division) east of Mezey, was attacked in front and on both flanks, but successfully repulsed Germans belonging to six different regiments. Of this regiment General Pershing said: "On this occasion a single regiment of the Third Division wrote one of the most brilliant pages in our military annals *****. Our men, firing in three directions, met the German attacks with counter attacks at

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was launched at four forty-five A.M., July 18, and these three divisions at a single bound broke through the enemy's infantry positions and overran his artillery, precipitating a general German withdrawal from the Marne. The First and Second lost heavily but succeeded brilliantly, capturing nearly 7000 prisoners and 134 field guns. This operation marked the turn in the final tide of German invasion. This was north of the arrow on the map.



THE BATTLE LINE JULY 15, 1918

The arrows show in general where U. S. soldiers had been engaged before the beginning of the great offensive movement.

ALL THE DIVISIONS WIN THE PRAISE OF FRENCH OFFICERS.

As part of Degoutte's Sixth Army to the south, units of the Fourth Division were mingled with the French, while the First American Corps operated against the point of the salient with a French division and the Twenty-sixth. The attack of this Franco-American force was timed with the assault of the Tenth French Army nearer Soissons and made increasingly rapid progress as the enemy's decision to withdraw became evident. On July 22, the relief of elements of the Fourth Division commenced and on July 29 it was assigned to the First Corps as a reserve. The Twenty-sixth division advanced about ten miles, before its relief by the Forty-second on July 25.

critical points and succeeded in throwing two German divisions into complete confusion, capturing 600 prisoners." July 15 was a black day for the Germans. Their losses were heavy and their final assault had failed. Three days later, on July 18, the offensive passed to General Foch by whom it was never afterward relinquished. The arrival of American reinforcements had saved the cause of the Allies.

NINE DIVISIONS ENGAGED IN THE SUMMER OFFENSIVE WHICH FOLLOWED.

In the following summer offensive two American Army Corps and nine American divisions were engaged, the First and Third Corps and the First, Second, Third, Fourth, Twenty-sixth, Twenty-eighth, Thirty-second, and Forty-second, and the Seventy-seventh came up into the line August 12th, and helped push the Germans to the Aisne.

Foch's plan was to crush in the side of the Marne salient at Soissons as told on page 1037, but this is the story of American participation. The First and Second Divisions, hurriedly relieved from the line at Cantigny and Belleau Wood, were assigned to General Mangin's Tenth Army, and with the Moroccan Division, made up the Twentieth French Corps. The assault

On the south side of the salient along the Marne the advance was taken up, the Third Division crossing the river on July 20 and pursuing the retreating enemy northward, forcing him back to Ronchères Wood where the Thirty-second Division entered the battle. A brigade of the Twenty-eighth relieved a French division on this portion of the front July 29, and

often within a stone's throw of each other, and the bodies of German and American dead in the same machine-gun nests were a further testimony of the mutual stubbornness of the conflicts."

THE GERMAN LINE FINALLY BEGINS TO STIFFEN.

The Ourcq was forced, however, July 28, and August 3 the Forty-



A BABY CANNON AND ITS CREW

The French 37 mm. gun had a bore of about an inch and a half, and fired a projectile weighing about one pound. It was of considerable use in breaking up machine gun nests as it was quite accurate and the force of it was considerable. This is the crew belonging to this gun, which is stationed in the Champagne region. U. S. Official

engaged in the fight for three days. The Germans were retreating from the salient but fighting strong rear-guard actions. As they approached the Ourcq River they determined to make a strong stand. Here the Forty-second Division saw some bitter fighting: "On the yellow wheat fields that gradually slope eastward from Meurcy Farm, on the heights of Hill No. 184, which dominated Fère-en-Tardenois, remained innumerable evidences of the stubbornness of the fighting. The bodies of our men often lay in rows, not twenty yards from the German fox-holes, the opposing lines were

second was relieved by the Fourth which marched to the Vesle almost without resistance and crossed on August 6. Meanwhile the Thirty-second to the right, had advanced against strong opposition to the Vesle, where it was relieved by the Twenty-eighth on the same day. The direction of the Fourth and Thirty-second Divisions was taken over by the Third American Corps on August 3. The Fourth was relieved by the Seventy-seventh, the first of the National Army divisions to enter battle, on August 12. For a few days a brigade of the Third Division held a part of the



TWENTIETH CENTURY CLIFF DWELLINGS NEAR ST. MIHIEL

At Flirey, on the southern side of the St. Mihiel salient, where for nearly four years the lines had remained unchanged, the American 89th Division was occupying these quarters in September, 1918, when the French and American forces began to wipe out the salient. The picture shows a section of the 3rd Line known as Gas Hollow.



RESTING IN PUP TENTS IN THE ST. MIHIEL REGION

Company B of the 101st Infantry, 26th Division, are here shown using pup tents for shelter. They are somewhere between Mouilly and St. Remy on the western side of the St. Mihiel salient. The time is September, 1918, and the ground on which they camp had been recaptured by the Americans after four years of German occupation.
Pictures U. S. Official

river line. Both of these divisions attempted to establish bridgeheads on the northern bank against fierce German counter-attacks. Some progress was made especially as Franco-British attacks near the Oise had disturbed the Germans. By September 6 the Seventy-seventh had reached the Aisne and held this position until September 17. The Twenty-eighth was relieved by French units on September 7.

The Thirty-second, after a short rest, was transferred to the Tenth French Army, and on August 27 attacked Juvigny, which was captured after desperate fighting August 29-31. After receiving a citation from General Mangin, the division was withdrawn.

GENERAL PERSHING RECALLS HIS DIVISIONS AND FORMS THE FIRST ARMY.

During this period a few American units had been engaged on the British front. Two regiments of the Thirtieth took part in an attack on Hamel, July 4, and were again engaged on August 9. The Twenty-seventh and the Thirtieth took part in operations on the British front in parts or as a whole from July onward to the Armistice as mentioned elsewhere.

General Pershing though dispersing his forces by sending his divisions or brigades to assist the Allies wherever necessary, never gave up for a moment his purpose to form an American combat army. Now that the enemy's advance had been thrown back and his armies driven northward, Pershing announced the organization of the First American Army under his personal command on July 24. Nominally the Army assumed control of a part of the Vesle front on August 10, but in fact plans for concentration in the St. Mihiel sector were already under

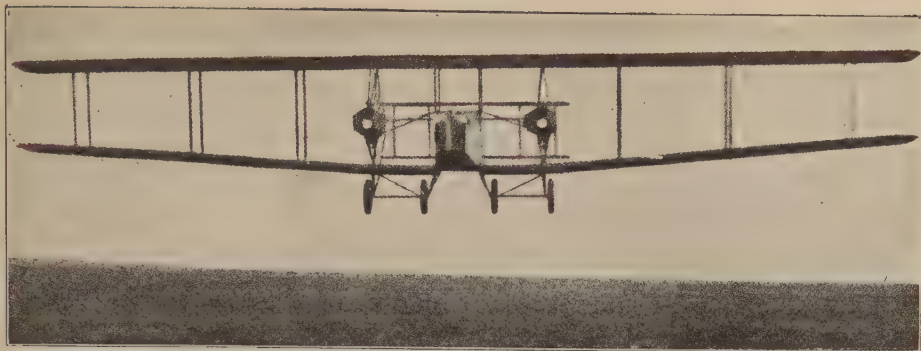
way, and the movements of concentration commenced immediately.

Up to September 1, seven American Army Corps had been organized wholly or in part. Of these the Second was on the British front, and the Seventh in the Vosges. The Sixth had just been organized and was not yet ready for action. The First, Third, Fourth and Fifth were organized.

PREPARATIONS FOR THE ST. MIHIEL OPERATIONS UNDERTAKEN IN EARNEST

For the St. Mihiel Operation, General Pershing had available fifteen divisions of which seven had had experience in battle or in active sectors, five more which had been in quiet sectors, two which had completed training in the British zone, and one more whose training was completed. There were also in France at that time, two divisions on the British front, three on the French active front, four more in the Vosges, five divisions in process of training, six replacement divisions and a colored division, the Ninety-third, which had been split up and its infantry regiments distributed among French divisions.

Several of the divisions however, were not yet supplied with their organic artillery brigades. The Allied Council during the Spring crisis had insisted that the greatest possible number of infantry and machine-gunners be sent over, even if other arms had to wait, promising to supply artillery and horses. It was not possible entirely to fulfill this promise and the American forces lacked many things. The higher staffs were as yet inexperienced, but nevertheless, General Pershing planned to attack positions which the Germans had held against all assaults during four years, confident in his belief that the American soldier would rise to the emergency and welcome the battle.



A Handley-Page Bombing Plane in Flight

CHAPTER LXVII

The Collapse of the Balkan Front

THE BULGARIAN LINE IS BROKEN AND UNCONDITIONAL SURRENDER FOLLOWS

THE deposition of King Constantine and the entrance of Greece into the war on the side of the Entente have been told in Chapter XLIII. Greek soldiers soon appeared on the Saloniki front in increasing numbers, and during 1918 the Greeks in arms numbered 300,000. This gave the Allies the superiority, and the withdrawal of some of the German troops to the Western Front weakened the Bulgar power still further. Both British and French units were likewise withdrawn for the Western Front but not to the destruction of Allied superiority.

THE OCCUPATION OF THESSALY BLOCKS THE GREEK ROYALISTS.

While the measures leading to the deposition of the King were being taken Thessaly was occupied, both because the harvest was needed by the Saloniki forces and also in order to prevent it from falling into Royalist hands. There was little resistance to the French troops who furnished the greater part of the force of occupation, as it was thought better not to use the Greek Nationalists. Considerable quantities of grain were gathered, and the danger of a Royalist demonstration in the flank was definitely ended.

After the abortive offensive of May, 1917, little had happened on the Macedonian Front save the shifting of troops and changes in command. In

December, 1917, General Guillaumat superseded General Sarrail, and in turn was succeeded by General Franchet d'Esperey, in June, 1918. The Bulgars had prepared strong defensive positions on the slopes of the mountains, and though favorably placed to take the offensive—for they held the inner lines and were well possessed of roads and railways—they had contented themselves with checking any movement of the Allied Army that might snatch from them the fruits of their victories of 1915-16. And because the Allies had been so long inactive the Bulgars believed that the engagement would end in a kind of stalemate which would leave them with their gains. Such an attitude is not productive of keen spirit and there were indications in the summer of 1918 that the Bulgar, ill-fed and tired, was weary of fighting a war into which he had been dragged by a prince whom he little respected and whom he regarded as the tool of Austria and Germany.

KING FERDINAND THE EVIL GENIUS OF BULGARIA.

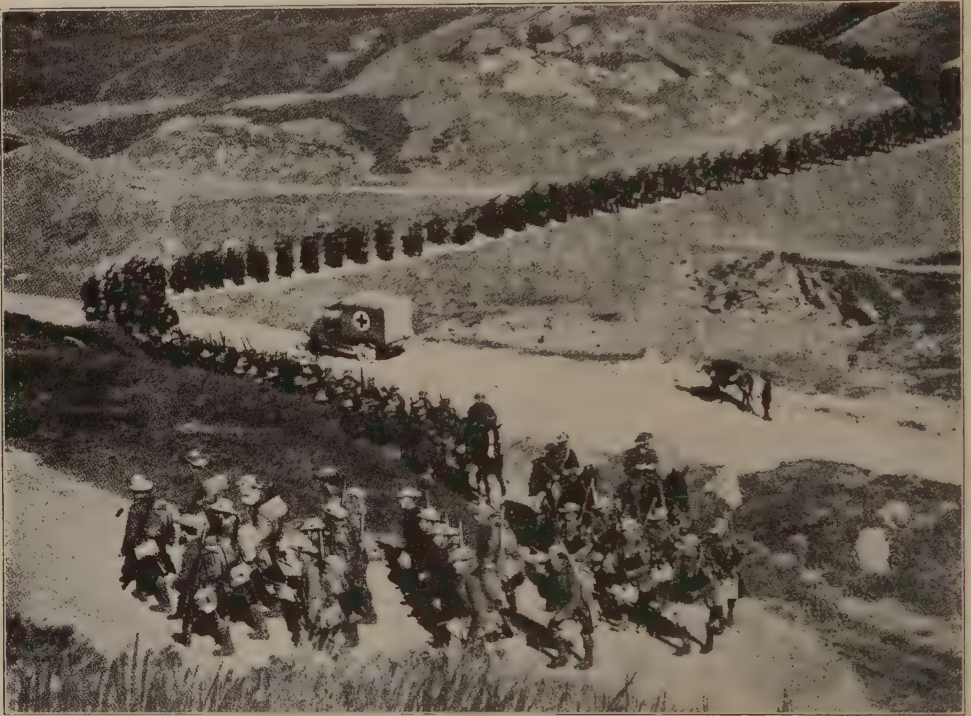
It had been an evil hour when Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Kohary was selected to fill the throne of Bulgaria. His first achievement had been to procure within a few years of his accession the murder of the strong man Stambulov, to whom he chiefly owed the

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throne. He was incapable of inspiring affection or respect but with devilish ingenuity set to work deliberately and systematically to debauch and corrupt the small governing class in order to secure a blackmailer's hold upon it.

All that was best in Bulgaria was being dragged reluctantly down the

units were withdrawn from the Macedonian front, leaving the fighting to be done by their useful ally. Furthermore, by the Peace of Bucharest the Dobrudja had been placed under a condominium of her Allies, and Bulgaria saw no indication that things were going her way. Turkey's attitude



ROUTE-MARCHING AMONG THE HILLS

A Highland battalion on the march during manoeuvres at Saloniki. In the long interval between their occupation of Saloniki and the opening of hostilities in August, 1916, the troops were kept in hard training for the arduous work before them. Such a road as that shown in the photograph had first to be made or restored before it was practicable for military movements.

inclined plane and unfortunately there was no unity of purpose, no strong leadership among the Allies to which they could rally. Ferdinand's treachery to the Balkan League had precipitated the Second Balkan War, and its failure had enabled him to frame a specious appeal to Bulgarian nationalism, still smarting under defeat. He had saturated the Bulgarian army with the spirit of Prussian militarism, and it was only too ready to believe with him that in following the German War Lord it was treading the path to easy victory and assured revenge. But disillusionment had come, as the German

over Thrace was threatening and passed unrebuked by Germany.

THE CENTRAL POWERS REALIZE THE WEAKNESS OF KING FERDINAND.

In August King Ferdinand had some conversation with the Kaiser in Germany, and after it the kings of Saxony and Bavaria visited Sofia with the object of influencing the Bulgarian monarch. Their visit taught them that the real power was no longer in the king's hands and that unless something were done to give Bulgaria material support and recreate a fighting spirit among the army Ferdinand would be powerless to avert the

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threatened defection. Nevertheless the members of the Bulgarian government visited the front and used every effort to encourage the army, but in vain. The number of deserters largely increased. Later information showed that certain units were in a state bordering on mutiny and refused to obey orders.

THE ALLIED COMMAND PLANS THE CAMPAIGNS IN SYRIA AND MACEDONIA.

As to the general situation in Europe, the Allied High Command, while it was raining blows on Ludendorff in the west, saw that the destruction of Turkey and Bulgaria in the east might undermine the staying powers of the Central Alliance, and accordingly the



MULE TRANSPORT ON THE GREEK FRONT

A convoy of foodstuffs belonging to the Alpine Chasseurs Corps. In the mountains of Greece as in the Vosges the contingents recruited in the Alps of the Dauphiné and Savoy were especially valuable for their endurance of climatic extremes, and the sure-footedness of men and beasts, their skill in the warfare waged on mountain-height and in steep ravine.

Germany and Austria were unable to spare troops at the time. The only alternative was for Turkey to send reinforcements to the Saloniki front. Talaat agreed at a price. A German loan for £T45,000,000 was to be made to Turkey, the Turks were to be allowed to occupy Baku, and the Maritza frontier question was settled in Turkey's favor. In return she was to send troops from Asia Minor and Europe to assist Bulgaria in repelling the expected attack. Talaat's bargaining was not accepted by his colleagues in Constantinople, however, and when the blow fell no Turkish troops were in line or even on the way.

double campaigns in Syria and Macedonia were planned and entrusted to Allenby and Franchet d'Esperey respectively.

D'Esperey had been given very full information as to the strength of the Bulgar position by his predecessor Guillaumat, and his own study of the situation suggested the key to an offensive. He saw that if Uskub could be seized a wedge would be driven between the Bulgarian forces lying east and west of the Vardar. It was not possible to advance up the narrow lobby of the Vardar, so the hills on the right and left must be turned. On the right the great barrier of the Balkans ran

generally east and west, but on the left where the direction was north and south there seemed more chance. In the autumn of 1916 the Serbians had forced the frontier line into Serbia and by capturing the dominating height of Kaymakchalan had taken Monastir. It had been difficult to debouch from this position because of the semi-circular bend of the Tchernia on the east en-

have expected the Allied offensive to come from Monastir and Lake Doiran rather than in this region, and Bulgarian reserves were reported to be in the Vardar Valley. To prevent their withdrawal the British and Greeks who held the sector east of the Vardar were ordered on September 1 to make an attack, and the 27th Division captured a portion of the enemy's line west



183437

TURKISH FIELD ARTILLERY READY FOR ACTION

closing the Selechka Mountains. The region between the Vardar and Tchernia was difficult and arduous and the heights commanding the passage of the Tchernia were solidly held by the Bulgars. D'Esperey planned, nevertheless, to attack these positions, cross the Tchernia from the east, secure the heights across the river and thereby open up the road to Prilep. Beyond Prilep lay the Babuna Pass and when that was taken the way to Uskub was clear.

THE BULGARS EXPECT ATTACK IN ANOTHER QUARTER.

So strongly were the Bulgars established on the crests of some and on the southern slopes of others of the Dobropolye Mountains that they seemed to

of the Vardar. A week later the Hellenic Corps in the Struma Valley advanced their posts.

It will be remembered that in the redistribution of the Allied forces which occurred during the summer of 1918, all the line east of the Vardar was held by British, and the Greek 1st Corps and two other divisions. West of the Vardar and between it and Monastir was a force of French and two Greek divisions, then a centre consisting of Serbians, Greeks, French and Jugoslavs, and west again leaning on Monastir General Henrys' French Army. Beyond Lakes Presba and Ochrida were Italian forces in Albania against the Austrian divisions. The defense



SERBIAN VOLUNTEERS FROM THE UNITED STATES

These men were mobilized chiefly from Serbian communities in Indiana and were officered by Frenchmen. They carried with them to the Serbian front three American flags consecrated in the Serbian Orthodox Church in Indianapolis before their departure. The photograph shows them at a French port on their way to join the Army of the East.

N. Y. Times



ON THEIR WAY TO CAMP

Italian troops who have safely eluded the submarines and landed in Saloniki shown en route for camp. The first force arrived in August, 1916, and further contingents followed. In the fighting the Italians occupied the western end of the front opposing Austrian forces in Albania, where the country was particularly difficult.

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of the line west of the Vardar fell to the Eleventh German Army which constituted a half of the enemy's forces. Though this army had a German general and a German Staff the men were chiefly Bulgars. East of the river were the Second, Third and Fourth Bulgarian armies with the First Bulgarian Army in reserve.

On September 14, a general bombardment of the whole 80-mile front from Lake Doiran to Monastir began, particularly on that sector of the line running northeast from Kaymakchalan. At 5:30 A.M. of the following day the French 121st and 52nd Colonial Divisions, with a Serbian division "went over the top." Later in the day



WHERE THE ALLIED ARMIES DEFEATED THE CENTRAL POWERS

A Franco-Serbian force held the centre of the Balkan front in the mountain region east of Monastir. On the right between Vardar and Struma stood the British Saloniki Army with several Greek divisions. On the left French, Greek and Italian divisions extended to Lake Prespa. West again to the Adriatic were French and Italian divisions, with Albanian detachments at Koritsa.

THE MOUNTAIN PEAKS ARE SUCCESSFULLY STORMED.

General Franchet d'Esperey's plan aimed at taking the enemy by surprise on a narrow front, if possible capturing the Sokol, Dobropolye, Vetrenik and Kozyak peaks so as to reach the Vardar by the shortest possible route, and to turn the loop of the Tchernia which could be crossed more easily there than in the lower valley. He hoped that the Anglo-Greek offensive in the neighborhood of Lake Doiran would cloak his preparations for the attack on the hill positions, and then when that was fully launched, it would be the function of the Greeks and British first to hold hostile reserves in the Vardar Valley, and then if the central attack succeeded become a basic offensive against Strumitza.

another Serbian division and the Jugo-Slav division followed. The assaults were successful beyond hopes, the Serbians won all before them, the French were delayed a little by the razor-back of Sokol but within twenty-four hours a wide breach was opened in the formidable rampart of mountains from which for over two years the Bulgars had looked down upon the Serbian Army patiently abiding its time. Now from these vantage points the defenders were either dislodged or dragged down as captives to the nether plain.

THE DIFFICULT NATURE OF THE GROUND FOUGHT OVER.

The next day the front was enlarged to 16 miles when the 3rd Greek Division and the First Serbian Army entered the battle on the left, and the Allies advanced five miles. Some conception

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of the arduous nature of the battleground may be gathered from the following short extract from the official report: "Access to the chaos of rocks that forms the peak of the Sokol is possible only by two narrow roads upon which the enemy artillery and machine guns are concentrating their fire. On the left the granite rises perpendicularly; the attacking units depart for

on the 18th energetically supported the central attack amid the granite cliffs of the Dzena. The objective of the centre was won when the Tchernia was crossed by the Serbs pushing towards Prilep, and strategic exploitation of the gains began with the advance of the two wings on Tchernia and Vardar and by pursuit to the north. Cavalry entered Poloshko and the con-



STREET SCENE, SCUTARI

Albanian pedlar with his wares on one of the roughly cobbled pavements of Scutari. As the capital of the Ottoman Vilayet of Scutari this city was in the hands of the Turks until April, 1913, when it was captured by the Montenegrins. It was incorporated in the newly created Principality of Albania, and during the war occupied respectively by the Montenegrins, the Teutonic Allies and the Army of the Orient. Ruschin

the assault, carrying ladders. Balancing themselves on the irregularities of the cliff, the men climb up under a barrage fire of extreme violence * * * * The battalion clings to a foothold 150 yards from the summit. During the whole day it resists the enemy's counter-attacks. Only at 10:30 in the evening does it gain the summit by a vigorous effort." This was an attack which seemed to grow in momentum as it advanced, for, on the 17th, the Jugoslavs pushed forward to the crest of Kozyak and captured a large number of prisoners, and the Franco-Hellenic detachment under General d'Anselme

nection between the enemy's right and left armies was almost severed.

THE BRITISH AND THE GREEKS ALSO SUCCEEDED TO THE EAST.

On that same day the British and Greeks around Lake Doiran recommenced their fighting. Their main operations were directed against the "P" Ridge and the neighboring heights west of Lake Doiran which had been the scene of the battles in the spring of 1917. Simultaneously with the main attack a secondary and surprise attack was made around the east and northern sides of the lake against the Bulgar trenches on the Beles range. The Bul-

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garian front was of exceptional strength in this area, as the following extract from General Milne's dispatch indicates: "There are steep hillsides and rounded hills. There is little soil. The hard rocky ground makes consolidation of a newly-won position difficult, and gives overwhelming advantage to the defender, well-dug into trenches that have been the careful work of three

fought with great determination and the Greek soldiers showed remarkable valor and tenacity. For nearly four days the Grand Couronne baffled the Allied attack but on the night of the 21st, the enemy started a retirement on the Vardar Valley, with the British and Greeks before daylight in full pursuit. The way lay through very hilly country and to some extent the Bulgars



THE USES OF WAR

The entrance to an old monastery near the British Balkan Front, which has been screened with brushwood and used as a canteen for the troops. One of the ever-present difficulties of the Army of the East was the question of the commissariat the supplies for which had to be sent almost entirely from the home countries.

years. Deep-cut ravines divert progress and afford unlimited opportunity for enfilading fire. * * The enemy had taken full advantage of his ground. He was strongly entrenched in three successive lines, with communication trenches deeply cut into the rock and roomy, well-timbered dugouts, with concrete machine-gun emplacements, and, on the crest between "P" Ridge and Grand Couronne, with concrete gun-pits. It was the key position of the Vardar-Doiran defenses and he held it with his best troops."

The British were worn with three years' watching and malaria but they

held up the advance by strong rear-guard actions. But there was only one good line of retreat open to the enemy, the Kosturino Pass on the Strumnitza road, and it was blocked by masses of men and transport moving northward. The pilots of the Royal Air Force, flying low, took full advantage of this opportunity. They bombed the Bulgar columns and shot down men and animals causing heavy casualties and a confusion that bordered on panic.

THE GREEK FIRST CORPS DELIVERS A SUCCESSFUL ATTACK.

Meanwhile, farther east the 1st Greek Corps was holding down the

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Second Bulgarian Army on the Struma mouth; several days before the general offensive the Hellenic troops had received orders to advance their line in the valley and had done so on a front of nearly 20 miles to a depth of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, driving back an enemy much superior in numbers and attaining all their objectives. So surprised were the Bulgars by this diversion that the Ger-

THE BULGARIANS ARE BEATEN ALONG THE WHOLE LINE.

The situation recalls the autumn of 1915 when the Serbians were defending the Babuna Pass and the Anglo-French force having pushed up the Vardar River held the Kavadar triangle and tried in vain to reach their allies to the west. On September 20 the Serbians held the whole triangle and the follow-



IN OCCUPIED TERRITORIES

Austrian sentry inspecting a passport in a Serbian town. Under military rule the Serbian peasants were forced to submit to the severest regulations which prohibited their moving from village to village with their farm produce unless they had special permits to do so, and this of course increased the hardships of living. Ruschin

man reinforcements being sent in from Rumania were concentrated here instead of where the principal attack was delivered.

By the 23rd of the month the Serbians were in Gradsko and since the 15th had advanced a distance of 40 miles over mountain peaks and through deep defiles. The enemy's retreat was now becoming a rout; in his flight he burned stores and villages, and the number of prisoners and booty which fell to the victors could not be counted owing to his very rapid advance. The French were moving on Prilep and north and east of Monastir the Italians were pressing into the Tchernia bend.

ing day crossed the Vardar and cut the railway between Uskub and Saloniki. By the time the French Cavalry had entered Prilep, the defile of Demir Kapu had been seized by the Franco-Hellenic detachment which had crossed the Vardar and was pushing on toward Ishtip. Exposed to a converging attack from the British advancing from Doiran and from the Serbs and Jugo-Slavs across the Vardar the Bulgarian forces lost contact and split into two groups; the so-called Eleventh German Army was driven northwest toward Kalkandelen and the eastern armies retired to the north by way of Strumnitza. By the evening of the 25th the

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Serbian, pressing on to prevent a junction of the scattered enemy forces, had the Babuna Pass and the town of Ish-tip, they were close on Veles, and Uskub was almost within their grasp. The fragments of the First, Third and Fourth Bulgarian Armies, although pursued by the Anglo-Hellenic forces who had invaded Bulgarian territory at Kosturino, were able to retreat upon

longer in the war. M. Malinov, the premier, who succeeded the Germanophile M. Radoslavov in the spring of 1918, had evidently made up his mind to gratify the popular demand for peace at the earliest opportunity. Assured of the support of an army that was weary of war and of a people who were restless under German control, he acted promptly before Germany had



BULGARIAN ARTILLERY IN MACEDONIA

Bulgarian guns in the market-place of a Macedonian village. Upon the Bulgars fell the brunt of the fighting against the Allied Army of the Orient. The Austrians had as many as forty battalions in line, and the Germans up to twenty-three, but against these figures the Bulgars had two hundred and sixty, although some of their battalions were commanded by German officers.

their own country but it was otherwise with the Eleventh German Army. By the vigor of the Serbs and the ardent pursuit of the French army under General Henrys it was penned up without food in the high wilderness region where the Vardar has its source, and in inhospitable Albania where the Italians held all exits, and where the Austrian flank was in the air.

BULGARIA IS READY FOR PEACE AT ANY PRICE.

Bulgaria now faced a crisis. Germany and Austria had failed to send adequate reinforcements and it was clear that Bulgaria's heart was no

time to realize her mistake. Anti-German feeling in Sofia had reached a point where a general massacre of all the Germans in the city was to be feared. Ferdinand gave way to the wishes of his cabinet and people, and despite the fact that at Nauheim only a month before he had promised his support to the Kaiser, he now gave his consent to unconditional surrender.

On the night of Thursday, September 26, a Bulgarian staff officer appeared at the British headquarters under a flag of truce. He had come from Todorov, the Bulgarian Commander-in-Chief, and he asked for an armistice

of 48 hours until delegates could arrive to arrange preliminaries of peace. General Milne telegraphed the request to Franchet d'Esperey who refused an armistice but expressed his willingness to meet Bulgarian delegates.

THE HARD TERMS TO WHICH BULGARIA READILY AGREED.

Two days later three men, M. Liaptchev, Finance Minister, General Lukov, Commander of the Second Bulgarian Army, and M. Radev, a former Minister, with their staff, passed through the lines en route for Saloniki. No long deliberations were necessary: the Allied demands were for unconditional surrender and Bulgaria was fully prepared to accede. By September 29 the terms signed by General Franchet d'Esperey and the Commissioners were presented to the Allied Governments, and September 30 at noon the armistice went into effect. Considerations of political and territorial matters were postponed until the signing of the final treaty of peace, and in character the agreement was purely military.

Its terms included immediate evacuation of all occupied territory, no provisions to be carried away; immediate demobilization of the Bulgarian army with the exception of a small force for defense in the East, with surrender of all arms and ammunition; all means of transport to be at the disposal of the Allies; surrender of all strategic points in Bulgaria to an army of occupation; surrender of the Eleventh German Army; Allied prisoners to be released at once but Bulgarian prisoners to be held until final peace.

KING FERDINAND ABDICATES IN FAVOR OF PRINCE BORIS.

The Allies made no conditions concerning Ferdinand, as they thought this an internal matter to be dealt with among the Bulgarians themselves. On the fourth day after the peace, the king abdicated in favor of his son, Crown Prince Boris, and left Sofia that same night en route for Vienna. He issued a manifesto to his subjects before leaving in which he said:

"Despite the sacred ties which for thirty-two years have bound me so firmly to this country, for whose prosperity

and greatness I have given all my powers, I have decided to renounce the royal Bulgarian crown in favor of my eldest son, His Highness, the Prince Royal Boris of Tirnovo.

"I call upon all faithful subjects and true patriots to unite as one man about the throne of King Boris, to lift the



BORIS OF BULGARIA

Ascended the throne October 5, 1918, upon the abdication of his father, King Ferdinand. Ruschin

country from its difficult position and to elevate new Bulgaria to the height to which it is predestined."

The accession of Prince Boris was received enthusiastically by the Bulgarians, the Cabinet under Premier Malinov continued its functions, and the first decree signed by the new king was one demobilizing the Bulgarian Army.

THE NEWS OF THE SURRENDER RECEIVED WITH DISMAY IN GERMANY.

News of the Bulgarian surrender shocked the German public, already depressed by their defeat in their Western "elastic defensive" and by Allied victory in Palestine. A panic ensued

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on the Berlin Stock Exchange. The Foreign Secretary, Admiral von Hintze, at first tried to reassure the Reichstag by saying that M. Malinov had interpreted the military reverses too unfavorably, that his action might not be confirmed by the Bulgarian Parliament, and that in any case Germany and Austria had sent strong forces into Macedonia which "would be absolutely adequate to restore the military situation." But Bulgaria was no

and Austria would be forced to deplete her forces on the Piave and in the Alps to defend these states. Further, the way of the Allies to Constantinople was greatly simplified. The main railway line was captured at Nish, October 13, and there was also a direct railway between Constantinople and Dedea-gatch which could be used by Allied troops to gain entrance into the Thracian peninsula a few miles north of the lines at Chatalja.



WHEN THE WAVE OF WAR HAS RECEDED

Serbian peasant women returning from the hills or from alien countries whither they fled for refuge when the Bulgarians and Austrians fell upon them. Because of the ancient feud between the two nations, Bulgaria and Serbia, there were few that stayed to experience the conqueror's will. When they came back in many cases there was hardly any trace left of their houses or farms.

longer influenced by German promises, and political agitation in Germany increased. In truth, the military situation was very grave. A new front — the South Austrian — had to be defended, at a time when not a single man could be spared from the Western Front. Germany's dream of an eastern empire was gone: the scheme of a great trade and military route from the North Sea to India was shattered. No longer was the Lower Danube a safe waterway for the despatch of munitions and stores to Constantinople, and the Black Sea ceased to be a German lake, although the Rumanian and Russian ports were still open. Bosnia and Herzegovina were directly threatened as soon as Serbia should be reoccupied,

THE AUSTRIANS AND GERMANS DRIVEN OUT OF THE BALKANS.

Meanwhile the tide of conquest had flowed on. The Bulgars began evacuating Serbia, October 1, and the Serbs pressed forward. Fighting during October and November resolved itself into clearing operations in the country south of the Danube. Serbian and French troops took up the pursuit of the retreating Austrians and Germans, advancing rapidly on a wide front in southern Serbia. The Italians at the same time were driving the Austrians out of Albania, and the Greeks re-occupying their territory in Eastern Macedonia where they found terrible traces of Bulgarian savagery in the unhappy region of Drama and Kavalla.

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On October 2, Durazzo, the fort which Austria had fortified as her principal base, was bombarded and laid in ruins. Three Italian battleships and three British cruisers, preceded by British and Italian destroyers and American submarine chasers, passed through the Austrian minefields into the harbor. An intense bombardment lasting two hours and aided by airplanes destroyed the naval base on the shore and sank three enemy destroyers and two transports found at anchor. Two enemy submarines which attacked and damaged a British cruiser were sunk by twelve American submarine chasers.

In the interior of Albania, October 7, Italian troops captured Elbasan after stubborn resistance. The newly-constituted monarchy of Bulgaria ordered all Germans, Austro-Hungarians and Turks to leave the country and by October 10 their exodus was greatly accelerated. Officers, soldiers and civilians were arriving in Vienna on freight cars and long convoys of artillery and foodstuffs received the right of way. On the 13th the gallant Serbian Army had the satisfaction of capturing Nish and of thus interrupting the Balkan express through to Constantinople. On the 19th the Allied armies reached the Bulgarian shore of the Danube. The last days of October found the Serbians within 40 miles of Belgrade which they entered on the 9th of November, 45 days after the beginning of their offensive east of Monastir.

THE JUSTIFICATION OF THE WHOLE SALONIKI ENTERPRISE.

The Saloniki enterprise had justified itself; a seemingly divergent operation had directed a blow which had inflicted

mortal injury. Many factors explain the immobility of the Army of the Orient for the greater part of three years. Save for the attempt to reach the Serbians in the Babuna Pass in the autumn of 1915, and the capture of Monastir in 1916, no offensive of any strength had been delivered. One of the chief reasons lies in the nature of the country itself where the divides in the mountain masses are so few that the routes used in the Great War are the routes that have been used in every war — by the legions of Rome as by the poilus of France and where therefore new offensives can only be delivered after the creation of new roads. The Bulgars held interior lines which were relatively well-supplied by railway, and furthermore, they were fighting, if not on their own territory at least upon adjacent ground, where supplies could easily reach them. The climate of Macedonia in itself was a deterrent to all save the native, bitterly cold in winter and hot through the long summer. The fighting strength of the army was sometimes reduced 50 per cent by its attendant evils of malaria and fever.

In addition to physical obstacles the hostility of the Greek government, and the hesitation of the Allied governments adequately to support the undertaking after it had been begun, hindered progress. The units of the Army of the Orient were varied in language and character, and poorly supplied. With the best leadership it would have been difficult to weld them into an efficient force, and the leadership was not, at first, of the best. Nevertheless the world conflagration which first flared up in the Balkans was there first to flicker and die away.



WHAT THE ARMISTICE MEANT

German troops, shortly after signing the Armistice, evacuating Huningen, Alsace. The French occupied the town five days later. In the foreground are American Red Cross Workers. On November 17, the day that the French armies started forward into Lorraine, Paris celebrated the occasion of the regaining of her lost provinces.

International Film Service



POILUS AND GIRLS OF METZ

Marching through the streets rejoicing at the restoration of the city to France. On November 19 Pétain, created Marshal of the Republic by telephone, made his triumphal entry into Metz, the chief city of Lorraine. He was accompanied by General de Castelnau and General Leconte. Two commissioners were appointed to administer temporarily the territory taken from France in 1871.

N. Y. Times



French Artillery Moving Forward

CHAPTER LXVIII

The Fighting During the Last Three Months

THE GERMAN LINE EVERYWHERE BROKEN, FROM LORRAINE TO THE SEA

FORMER chapters have described the first and second phases of the great struggle of 1918. The first phase includes the period of German offensives against the British (March-April) and against the French (May-July). Next came the beginning of Allied counter-offensive in the second Battle of the Marne. In the third phase which opens August 8 the British, aided by the French, in an offensive in the Somme-Oise sector wiped out the salients created in their line by the attacks of March and April and pushed the Germans back behind the Hindenburg line. During this period, also, the Americans drove in the St. Mihiel salient and by their victory completed Foch's series of short sharp blows which aimed at exhausting the enemy's reserves, so as to leave the way open for a decisive thrust. A fuller story of British and American operations is told in separate chapters.

THE FRENCH SHARE IN THE GREAT AUGUST OFFENSIVE.

The Battle of Amiens launched by Haig on August 8 was directed against the German hold on the Paris-Amiens railway, and the important centre of Chaulnes—nodal point for the enemy communications. The French First Army under Débeney prolonged the battle about four miles to the south of Rawlinson's Fourth Army, playing the

rôle that Dégoutte had had in the Marne fight. Southwards again on the Lassigny plateau, Humbert with the French Third Army strove to regain what had been lost to von Hutier in the battle of June 9, while between Aisne and Oise Mangin was in position to attack as soon as success farther north warranted his so doing.

The surprise was complete and the attack, curtained by fog and launched under cover of rolling barrage and multitudinous tanks, swept forward into the front lines dislocating the enemy's communication service. The French First Army had fewer tanks than the British, and very difficult country to penetrate in the Avre valley so that their progress was for a time slower, but as the troubles of the Germans increased with the strangle-hold upon their communications Débeney pressed forward and came into line with the British centre—within four miles of Chaulnes.

On the afternoon of the 9th Humbert joined the fray on the south flank of the salient between Montdidier and Matz, and with Débeney pushed east of Montdidier cutting communications with Roye so that the garrison had no alternative but to surrender the following day. Through the succeeding days, in spite of fresh divisions flung in by von Hutier, the British and French

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pushed steadily east with all the Paris-Amiens railway freed for traffic. Humbert was striving to get the whole of the Lassigny *massif* into his hands and by mid-August the Germans between Somme and Oise were back in the positions they had held in the summer of 1916. There their defenses stiffened and the nature of the battle-scarred country forbade rapid advance. Foch, having gained his objectives, called off

when the French general attacked on the morrow on a wider front he was able to press forward and reach the Ailette (August 20), capturing 8,000 prisoners and 200 guns. Thus established on the western end of the Aisne heights Mangin could overlook the enemy's positions to the north and east and constituted a strong flank to whatever advance was made around the St. Gobain *massif*.



AN ANCIENT DEVICE BROUGHT UP TO DATE

Advance post of a unit furnished with apparatus for optical signalling by luminous fire. The flashes, short or long, correspond to the dot and dash of the Morse alphabet and are used in the same manner. This method was particularly valuable at night, or in an area gun-befogged during artillery preparation or barrage.

French Official

the action in that quarter and launched a fresh blow.

Between Oise and Aisne on the morning of Sunday, August 18, General Mangin advanced on a front of ten miles. Von Boehn had temporarily assumed the direction of the armies of the right of the Crown Prince (that the latter might re-organize his front after the second battle of the Marne); he was anxiously watching Sir Douglas Haig believing Mangin's attack to be purely local. Though the Germans retreated into their battle positions, no reserves were sent in. Accordingly

GERMANS SEEK THE PROTECTION OF THE HINDENBURG LINE A SECOND TIME.

After the initial attack of Haig on the 8th of August, Ludendorff, dismayed at many evidences of breaking morale in his divisions and confronted with the rapid shrinking of German reserves, came to a momentous decision. To the conference summoned to Spa, August 14, he revealed the true gravity of the military situation and advised that not only should the German people be made aware of their peril but that overtures for peace should be begun through neutral

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channels. The army's part should be to make ordered retreat into the Hindenburg lines, so as to leave the Allies to winter in the desolate exposed Somme battlefields. Secure behind their own great stronghold German troops might better endure the bad season, or in the event of earlier peace hold greater security for negotiating.

To this plan the Emperor reluctantly agreed, the process of enlightenment was entrusted to the civilian government, and Ludendorff returned to

the northernmost extension of the Hindenburg line, the Drocourt-Quéant switch. The blow threatened the German armies to the south so that retreat before the Third and Fourth British armies was hastened and Ham and Chauny were surrendered to the French who advanced to the Crozat Canal.

FOCH'S LAST SHARP THRUST: THE AMERICANS AT ST. MIHIEL.

At the end of the first week in September the Germans were for the most



AREA OF SOUTHERN HALF OF ALLIES' AUGUST OFFENSIVE

General Mangin provided the lower claw of the pincers opened by Marshal Foch in the second phase of the August battles. Thrusting towards Laon on August 13, he encircled Noyon on his left and dominated the great hill forest of St. Gobain on his right front.

Army Headquarters to prepare a gradual withdrawal such as that of the winter of 1916-17. On that occasion the Germans had effected their purpose, and the failure of the Allied campaign of 1917 was the direct result. This time Haig divined German purpose and determined to thwart it. The warriors should be hustled into Valhalla! Thus he fought the Battle of Bapaume (August 21-29) when Byng's Third Army succeeded in turning the German line on the Somme and endangered their positions between that river and the Oise. Retreat began and was closely followed up by Débeney, Humbert and Mangin who advanced to the line Roye-Lassigny-Noyon. Then Haig struck again opposite Arras (August 26-September 2) and pierced

part behind the Hindenburg line. While Haig and the French armies to the south had wiped out the effects of the spring drives, Pershing had been collecting his scattered divisions, forming the First American Army, and establishing an American sector. By the end of August this extended around the St. Mihiel salient and northward to a point opposite Verdun. On September 12, Foch, in pursuance of his strategy, delivered another blow at the enemy without allowing him pause for recovery. In a brilliant operation General Pershing captured the St. Mihiel salient, 16,000 prisoners and 443 guns.

SUCCESS OF FOCH'S PRELIMINARY PUNCHES: ABSORPTION OF ENEMY'S RESERVES

Between July 18 and September 13 the Commander-in-Chief had now de-

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livered an uninterrupted series of sharp attacks against the enemy, with the purpose of absorbing his reserves. In May, the Germans had 207 divisions on the Western Front, of which some 66 were in reserve. After St. Mihiel, Ludendorff had only 185 divisions (19 only in reserve) and none of these was of full strength. He could count at most upon five divisions from Russia as reinforcements. Conversely, with the coming of American and the

material, while those of the Allies had not even reached their maximum output.

There was marked contrast, too, between the spirit which animated the troops of the Fatherland, and that which inspired the armies of France, the United States and Great Britain. Reinforcements from the Eastern Front were of doubtful value, for they were tainted with Bolshevist teachings, and infected whatever area they were in.



FIELD-MARSHAL SIR DOUGLAS HAIG

On his return to London where he received an ovation. In the picture his carriage is seen halting in front of Marlborough House in order that he may receive a boutonnière from Queen Alexandra. Lady Haig (who is the daughter of Lord Vivian), and her daughter are standing on the left.

Times Photo Service

concentration of far-flung British divisions upon the Western Front, the Allied total had increased by 32 divisions as that of the Germans had decreased by 17, without taking into account the greater size of the American divisions. Thus an end of the phase of absorption had come.

Other factors there were which tipped the scale for the Western Powers. Since mid-July the capture of German guns and stores of ammunition had been enormous; and the blockade was at last beginning to tell effectively upon the military situation, for Germany had exhausted the store of brass and copper even in the occupied regions and her factories were starved for necessary

Young recruits, fresh from the dépôts of Germany, had not the "will-to-war" of their opponents but reflected the desperate war-weariness of the nation at home.

LUDENDORFF ON THE DEFENSIVE: THE HINDENBURG LINE.

But though, early in September, Germany no longer hoped to win the war, Ludendorff believed he still had formidable defenses whereby to negotiate a favorable peace—or failing that to engineer a withdrawal by easy stages to the line of the Meuse which would allow of preparation for a grand "stand to" before ever the sacred soil of the Fatherland was invaded. The Hindenburg line—that Valhalla of



GENERAL VON EINEM, COMMANDER OF
THE II GERMAN ARMY

German heroes, that graveyard of their hopes—still stood intact, stretched like a strong and sinuous serpent between the sea and Switzerland. As a man stands upon an eminence when the tide of battle has surged to the east and views its miles of trenches following the back slopes of hills, its bewildering maze of wire all rusted and torn, its skilfully-engineered lines of water, ravines débris-encumbered, gun-sown forests, ambushed thickets, redoubts fortified for a world of cannon and of *mitrailleuses*—the impotence and impermanence of the strongest things human and material, before the force of the spirit which quickeneth, comes strongly home.

Behind the barrier of the Hindenburg line ran other positions. The battle—if it came—must be against a triple rampart. Would Foch attack, press the battle? Might not the Allied armies exhausted by a gigantic offensive of seven weeks, after a murderous defensive of four months, pause before the Hindenburg line and postpone decision until 1919?

Stretching east of Furnes, Ypres and Armentières, the line encircled Le Catelet, St. Quentin, La Fère, and enveloped Laon where it rested as upon a pivot. After crossing the Aisne at Berry-au-Bac the rampart stretched south-east as far as the latitude of Rheims, then turned eastward to the Meuse north of Verdun, thence southwards to St. Mihiel. At St. Mihiel, as to the north of Soissons, there was a turn from which the line descending into the region of Mulhouse only finished at the Swiss frontier north-west of Basle. Symbolical of the supernatural strength with which German thought invested the line were the names of legendary gods and heroes bestowed upon its different parts. The stretch between the North Sea and Roulers was called the *Preussen Stellung*, that from Menin to south of Lille, the *Bayern Stellung*, Drocourt to Quéant, the *Wotan Stellung*, the *Siegfried* down about to La Fère, and the *Alberich* in the region of the French armies down as far as Rheims. These were the formidable positions which made the sections of the main defense.



ALBRECHT, DUKE OF WÜRTTEMBERG

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GERMAN DEFENSIVE POSITION, AUGUST, 1918

OTHER DEFENSIVE POSITIONS PREPARED BY THE GERMANS.

Before the line ran advance positions (such as the Drocourt-Quéant switch which had already fallen into British hands), positions which were to cause hard fighting through the early weeks of September. Such was the chief bulwark of empire. A second line—not everywhere complete and not always continuous though Allied thought

endowed the German infantryman with digging powers little short of fabulous—resting on Lille ran through Douai, Cambrai, Guise, Rethel, Vouziers, Dun-sur-Meuse, and Pagny-sur-Moselle. From Lille as far south as the Aisne the Germans called this position the Hunding line, from Aisne to north of the Argonne the Brunhilde, then the Kriemhilde Stellung, and thence southwards, the Michel Stellung.

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Back of these lines ran yet a third—from Douai to Metz, by le Quesnoy, le Cateau, Hirson, Mézières, Sedan and Montmédy—known as the Hermann, the Hagen and the Freya Stellung. Never in the history of war had been such defensive positions. What wonder then if in their fall they brought down a dynasty, a military autocracy, a nation!

must be delivered on each side of the bulge, and Foch's order for the battle, dated September 3 (while even yet the French and British were clearing up outworks of the Hindenburg line) assigned the parts in the forthcoming great battle in this way. The Commander-in-Chief ordered the right wing to deliver an offensive as strong and violent as possible: the American

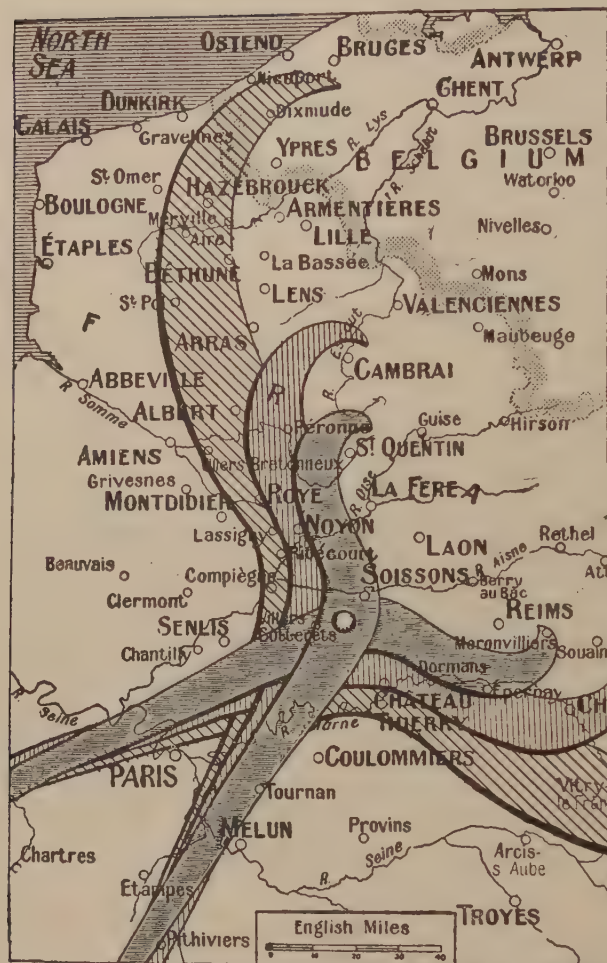


RETURNING AFTER FOUR YEARS OF EXILE

THE PLAN FOR THE GREAT BLOW IS DEVELOPED.

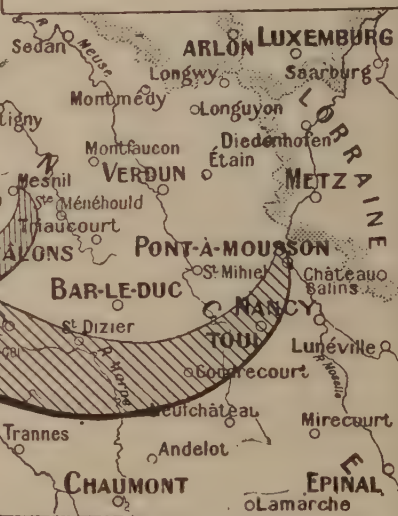
For the moment Foch was concerned only with the Hindenburg line. What were the strategic possibilities of the enemy's position? First as to communications: Ludendorff's chief means of moving reserves and stores was the main line of railway back of the Hindenburg system connecting Metz, Mézières, Maubeuge, Mons and Brussels; and this line was his last good lateral communication west of the Ardennes. It lay nearest in the south where the Fourth French and First American Armies were in line. It was well defended in the centre (where the Hindenburg line bulged out) by the *massif* of St. Gobain and the Chemin des Dames. In the north where Haig stood before the Wotan and Siegfried lines defense was formidable. Attack

First Army to advance between the Meuse and the Argonne Forest in the direction of Mézières and Gouraud's Fourth Army to drive in between the Meuse and Mézières, so as to threaten the railway. To the north, the First French Army under Débeney and the First, Third and Fourth British Armies were to press an attack against the Hindenburg line between Scarpe and Oise, in the direction of Maubeuge. Such "pincer-like" action, Foch judged, would have its effect upon the enemy's centre, and to the central group of French armies commanded by Humbert and Mangin was assigned the rôle of embarrassing the enemy in his consequent enforced withdrawal beyond Aisne and Ailette. Foch knew that Ludendorff had weakened his army in Flanders in order to protect Cambrai, and he accordingly went north to see



St. Mihiel to the Verdun sector, making elaborate precautions to induce the enemy to believe that the attack would be towards Metz, and veiling his khaki-clad troops with a thin line of horizon blue until the very night of September 25-26, so that the enemy was thereby successfully deceived.

THE BATTLE OF ARMAGEDDON IS LAUNCHED AT LAST.
Upon Sir Douglas Haig and General Pershing devolved the heavy responsi-



COMPREHENSIVE VIEW OF MARSHAL FOCH'S PINCERS STRATEGY

Diagram to explain Marshal Foch's strategic plans in 1918. The inmost pincers comprise the British attack on St. Quentin and the French upon Rheims; the centre pair include the British operations about Cambrai and the French in Champagne; the outermost, largest, pair embrace the Anglo-Belgian offensive in Flanders and Franco-American assaults upon the Meuse.

King Albert, and agreed with him upon an action destined to conquer the province north of the Lys. General Birdwood with the new British Fifth Army south of the Scheldt was to perform a function similar to Fayolle's group of armies in the centre, and hasten the enemy's retreat.

Before the battle it was necessary to clear up the advance positions three miles to the west of the Hindenburg system, and this was done by Haig (Battle of Epehey) and by Débeney's First French Army between St. Quentin and La Fère. Meanwhile Pershing was secretly transferring troops from

bility of deciding to advance. The former had serious obstacles before his line; the latter, with almost a new army, had to overcome German resistance desperate in proportion to the importance of the locality as a pivot for possible German retreat. Each accepted the responsibility, independently of his government. Upon the 26th of September, on the western end of the line the first rumblings of the great Battle of Armageddon began between Meuse and Rheims, and soon the whole front from Lorraine to the sea roared up in mighty crescendo, the voices of the great guns punctuated by

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the monotonous throbbing of drum fire so heavy as to set the earth rocking 150 miles away. Sir Douglas Haig's battle against Cambrai opened on the 27th, and King Albert attacked north and south of Ypres on the morning of the 28th.

THE FRANCO-AMERICAN BATTLE IN CHAMPAGNE AND THE ARGONNE.

Upon the French front between Suippe and Meuse, Gouraud had

the morning of the 26th, and according to his plan the French army advancing would approach the American Army with its right. The flow of the Meuse would force the Americans to incline to the left and thus in converging the two forces would find themselves in touch at Grand Pré Pass while pursuing their mutual advance on Mézières and Sedan. Such advance, Foch



METAL WHICH NEVER REACHED ITS DESTINATION

Collections of bells, candelabra, and crucifixes rifled from churches of France and about to be shipped to Berlin which were found in a German encampment by the advancing French. Numbers of German helmets were also left behind by their owners in their great haste, who acted on the principle of "Safety-First."

International Film Service

known since the 8th that about the 25th of the month he would be expected to execute, in conjunction with the First American Army on the right, an offensive towards Mézières, and for three weeks he prepared. From the 20th the six corps of the Tenth Army (9th, 2nd, 11th, 14th, 38th, 21st) were in line. Behind them the 1st Cavalry Corps waited in readiness to exploit the gains of the infantry. The front of attack ran from Auberive-sur-Suippe on the west to Vienne-le-Château on the east where Gouraud joined up with the Americans. General Pétain gave the order to attack on

calculated, would throw the enemy across the Meuse into the difficult Ardennes country where scarcity of communications would seriously embarrass his retreat. Gouraud had before his front eighteen miles of Champagne heathland, which the attack of July 15 had left shell-cratered and blasted. German defense on this front was very obstinate for Ludendorff recognized it as the pivot of his retreat, in the same sense as it was the pivot of Foch's manoeuvre. To follow the operations better the Commander-in-Chief went to Trois-Fontaines, while Pétain set up headquarters at Nettancourt.

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At 5:25 on the morning of the 26th after violent bombardment the French infantry went forward. The enemy had imitated Gouraud's manoeuvre of July and evacuated the front lines which were manned only by advance posts. But this had been foreseen and the troops did not spend themselves rashly, pushing on valiantly through the terrible waste of "No Man's

could not be used, and artillery work was severely limited. The 28th was an arduous day all along the line: the aerial forces reported dense masses of reserves being thrown in to stiffen the line, nevertheless Gouraud made steady advance, and east of the Argonne Pershing reached the Bois d' Epinonville as far as Nantillois, and took the Wood of Dannevoix.



AMERICANS AND FRENCH CUTTING WIRE AT BADONVILLER

Land." It took three days of desperate fighting to force a passage out of the old battlefields. The enemy offered only the expected resistance, thick nests of machine-guns, vigorous counter-attacks wherever the tide paused, but he held the high ground and was throwing in his reserves.

Meanwhile eastwards the Americans made a fine advance; by the evening of the 26th they had captured the first line defenses on the whole front of attack, and in the centre pressed forward around Montfaucon where the Crown Prince had a palatial dug-out. Their left wing by now was entangled in the terribly difficult country of the Argonne without roads so that tanks

On Gouraud's front the Germans were basing their resistance to the left on the Rheims mountain which the French general did not mean to attack but purposed to turn, and to the right on the Argonne Forest where the Americans now made little advance. To stem French progress in the centre Ludendorff reinforced his positions in the *massif* of Notre Dame-des-Champs whose conquest threatened the turning of the Rheims heights, and for some days successfully halted Gouraud's men, as in the forest he was holding up the Americans.

Meanwhile what was happening in the other phases of the great battle,—so vast that it is easy to be lost in



THE BELGIAN ARMY RE-FORMED AND REFITTED

Gradually as the new recruits were trained they rejoined the units stationed in Flanders. In this picture General Ceuninck is seen making a tour of inspection in the army cantonments. The Belgian forces under King Albert played a worthy part in the last offensive of 1918, which they were pleased to call the "Battle of Liberation."



106TH REGIMENT RETURNING FROM HINDENBURG LINE

The 27th Division first entered the line with British units opposite Mt. Kemmel. On August 20 it moved to the Dickebush sector, Belgium, and eleven days later was a front line division in the attack on Vierstandt Ridge. As part of the 2nd Corps (U. S.) 4th British Army, the division was in action near Bony, September 24-October 1. October 12 it again entered the line in the St. Soupiet sector and crossed the Selle River.

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the details? "The British, looking at their area, will see it as a contest between St. Quentin and Ypres, designed to break the Hindenburg Line. The Americans will see it as a struggle between the Meuse and the Argonne to reach and cut the all-important Metz-Maubeuge railway. The French will see it as a kaleidoscopic contest in which the French soldiers, now beside the British, now with the Belgians,

in which were two American divisions, and Débeney's First had effected a breach in the heart of the Hindenburg position and by October 5 the line was broken. After four years' hammering nothing but a single line now stood between the British Army and Maubeuge.

In Flanders, coincidentally, the Belgian thrust had found its mark. Ludendorff had drawn off troops to strength-



HASTENING THE RETREAT OF THE ENEMY IN CHAMPAGNE

Important progress was made along the southern part of the battlefield during the first week of October, 1918. At the beginning of that week the German forces still occupied the greater part of the heights of the Argonne and St. Gobain Forest. By the end of that week they had been forced from both strongholds, while Laon had been recaptured by the French and the enemy's railway lines threatened.

and now beside the Americans, do heroic service at crucial moments. Even the Belgians, participating considerably and nobly, will describe it as the Battle of their Liberation."

THE IMPREGNABLE HINDENBURG LINE FINALLY BREAKS.

Ludendorff's pivot in the south still held: was his rampart in the north yet unbroken? Horne and Byng's attack that had begun in the early morning of the 27th went forward unchecked to Sailly, and threatened Cambrai from the north. September 29 was a day of crisis—fraught with the fate of empire. By evening Rawlinson's Fourth Army,

en his forces before the British and left only five divisions between Voomezeele and Dixmude on a front of 17 miles. Here on the 28th King Albert's attack won through, cleared the Flanders ridges in less than 48 hours, swept forward beyond Passchendaele and by October 1 threatened Roulers.

THE BATTLE IN THE CENTRE—GERMANS DRIVEN FROM THE VESLE.

As Foch had foreseen, moreover, Gouraud's and Haig's blows around the St. Gobain bulge, and the Belgian thrust to the north of Lille, threatened the enemy in the enclosed areas and he began to withdraw. Then the French



GERMAN MARINES AND MACHINE GUNS

Dragging up machine guns amid the heavy sand of the dunes on the Belgian sea-coast. More difficult than mud or snow or woodland trail is the going over such territory and the comparatively light gun required a human team in addition to an engine. The whole coast was heavily fortified both with stationary as well as with mobile artillery.

Henry Ruschin



PREPARED TO GIVE THEIR MESSAGE

Battery after battery of French "Heavies" placed in systematic formation under the protection of splendid trees which border a highway in the Oise sector. It was such trees as these—whose slowly attained maturity represented the hopes of many years—that the Germans wantonly felled as they retreated in 1917 and again in 1918.

N. Y. Times

armies passed into action in the centre, and Birdwood's on the Scheldt, and the battle raged continuously upon a 250-mile front. In the angle where the Hindenburg line rested upon the St. Gobain *massif*, General Mangin, master of the forest of Coucy, endeavored to push towards Laon in the hope of turning the enemy's flank and forcing him to evacuate the country between Vesle and Aisne. He conquered the plateau to the north of Soissons, and thence advanced against Malmaison—the key to the Chemin des Dames. A Lorraine deserter captured on the 28th informed Mangin that the enemy by a retreat towards the Aisne-Oise Canal was seeking to extricate himself, so Mangin pressed the attack, captured Malmaison and wiped out the enemy rear-guards. At this point Foch perceived an opportunity: if the enemy hesitated to release the right bank of the Vesle he might be taken between two fires, if while Mangin's guns were sweeping the plateau to the north of the Aisne, Berthelot should light up to the south of the Vesle. Upon the 30th the Fifth Army (with the 5th, 20th, and 3rd Corps) accordingly threw itself against the German front between Ghennes and Jonchery. The 5th Corps crossed the Vesle at 6:25 and progressed towards the Wood of Goulot, pushing an unprepared enemy before him. On Berthelot's left, the 20th Corps was held up by the machine guns of Romain and of Grand Haneau, but by noon it had encircled these positions and captured them. The 3rd Corps after fierce fighting progressed towards the west of Revillon and the end of the first week in October saw all the region between Aisne and Vesle swept up.

EFFECT OF THE BATTLE: REQUEST FOR ARMISTICE.

Though the great battle lasted well into the first week of October, certain unmistakable signs of failing morale, the well-known fact of the exhaustion of reserves and of material caused Hindenburg and Ludendorff upon its third day to come to the momentous decision of advocating peace proposals. After that interview Ludendorff writes: "The

Field-Marshal and I parted with a strong handshake, like men who have buried their dearest hopes and who are resolved to hold together in their hardest trials as they have held together in success." The meeting marks the end of another great phase in the struggle: after the preliminary thrusts the great blow has been delivered, it has gone home and the duellist has fallen to his knees. Followed a special session with the Kaiser and Secretary of Foreign Affairs von Hintze, at Spa Headquarters.

Without consulting the Army the Kaiser, aware of the upswelling tide of revolution within the empire and striving to avert a crisis, issued an order for the introduction of the parliamentary system in Germany. The change in government and inevitable delay fretted the Higher Command as they knew fully the gravity of the military crisis. While Prince Max of Baden was seeking to form a cabinet to replace that of von Hertling, Ludendorff sent Major Baron von dem Busche to Berlin to explain the situation to the Reichstag, and to insist upon a peace offer. On the 4th of the month Prince Max became Imperial Chancellor and the next day request for an armistice was sent to President Wilson.

LUDENDORFF SEEKS TO GAIN TIME TO RALLY.

The greatest battle had been fought and won, but there still remained bitter fighting to do, for Ludendorff, aware of the increasing difficulties of Allied transport, attempted to rally and in his effort achieved a measure of success. German retreat had left everywhere in its wake battle-torn ground where roads and railways and bridges had been obliterated. Before the Allied armies could move forward some repair of the means of transport was absolutely essential. Thus the Belgians could not enter Roulers until October 14, the British were not clear of Cambrai until October 9, Débeney and the First French Army had advanced only eight miles east of St. Quentin by the 10th, Gouraud had only progressed one and a half miles in ten days and it took until the 10th for the

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American Army to win through the Argonne Forest. All this gave Ludendorff time to organize a new line, before being forced to make his great stand upon the line of Meuse. His left flank opposite the American front lay nearest to the Meuse: his right flank in Flanders farthest. It was necessary then to hold firm on the Meuse and swing back from Flanders. While achieving this it was equally essential to check the British thrust at Maubeuge, lest the German troops about Ostend be cut off. The report to the Reichstag presented by von dem Busche had ascribed the cause of German failure to two factors, namely to enemy tanks and the consequent wastage of German reserves. Nothing could be done to repair the latter but in his plan for ordered retreat in the northern area where tanks could be used, Ludendorff determined to oppose water-barriers between his troops and those formidable engines of war.

Thus withdrawing his troops from the Belgian coast he planned a stand on a line resting on the Dutch frontier, and running behind the Ghent Canal as far south as Valenciennes. Between Valenciennes and the Oise he hoped to check Haig by his Hermann line—a weak position only half complete. His centre would withdraw into the Hunting line. From Aisne to Meuse he determined to stand firm in the strong Brunhilde and Kriemhilde positions against Gouraud and Pershing so as to keep open the vital neck of his retreat. So much for the plan: what were the necessary conditions of accomplishment?

Writing at this juncture, Réquin says "The German staff proposes to establish itself upon the Antwerp-Scheldt-Maubeuge-Mézières-Metz line, but for the purpose it needs a respite, for a new defensive front can not be occupied under good condition unless it is, first, organized ahead, second, occupied by reserve troops, ready to collect the forces engaged and retreating.

"The situation of the German Army is in fact without an outlet. Their reserves have melted away in the gigantic battle. From 67 divisions back of



GERMAN LINES—ACTUAL AND PROJECTED the Front, September 26, they have fallen to 46, September 30, to 26 by October 15, of which only nine are considered fresh. The necessary proportion between the fighting and replacement effectives no longer exists."

GENERAL LUDENDORFF ENGINEERS A NEW STAND-TO.

A part of Ludendorff's retreat was successfully carried out. Between October 14 and 23 German forces withdrew in fair order from the Belgian coast behind the water line of canal and river. In the centre also from the St. Gobain *massif*, from Laon and from the Chemin des Dames the retreat was orderly though somewhat hastened by the French armies of Berthelot and Mangin. By the 15th the French faced the enemy in his new position behind the Hunting line. Eastwards Gouraud, who had had the 2d and 36th American Divisions in line, attacked in force on the 8th and retirement took place behind the Brunhilde lines. On the American front there was no question of retreat; the front *must* hold and the Americans were fighting hard for every inch of ground. An effort was made to get more room by extending the attacking front to the right banks of the Meuse. On the 16th Pershing handed over command of the First American Army to General Liggett as the continued arrival of fresh troops allowed of a Second American Army which went into line on the

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Woëvre front, opposite Metz. By the 14th the last line,—the Kriemhilde Stellung was attained.

Before the British attack, however, things went contrary to Ludendorff's plan. Haig's battle of Le Cateau hustled the enemy back behind the Hermann line with serious losses in men and guns. Still the German Commander was not ill-pleased with the

Grandpré was taken, Gouraud on the left captured the heights above Vouziers and crossed the Aisne. By the 18th German defenses on Meuse—as on the Cambrai-St.-Quentin front—were exhausted.

GERMANY'S SITUATION DESPERATE:
LAST EFFORTS TO EXTRICATE
HER ARMIES.

On the 26th Ludendorff resigned:



RHEIMS IN RUINS RESUMES BUSINESS

One of the principal streets in Rheims. The inhabitants are rapidly bringing back scenes of life to its devastated but immaculate streets. In the distance appears the tattered and roofless cathedral, which may either be left in lonely splendor as a ruin whose memory will ever be sacred, or in restored beauty may testify to the art of the Twentieth Century.

retreat and he pressed the civil government not to accept terms that would strip Germany of her army and navy.

Even as he spoke new blows fell. Attacking between the bend of the Scheldt below Va'enciennes and the Sambre, British, French, and American corps in the Battle of the Selle (October 17-23) made a breach in Ludendorff's rallying line, some 35 miles wide. In the Franco-American sector, the Americans in touch with the Kriemhilde position since the 14th, after an eight-day battle pierced the line at several points. On the 16th

the following day he left Headquarters. The situation now was almost desperate. The collapse of Turkey and Bulgaria and Austria left Germany stripped of allies. Her armies had been many times decisively defeated, and they had only one line of defense yet remaining. The navy was openly mutinous, the working classes starving. Among her opponents, on the other hand, the United States had only half developed her military power, Allied munition factories were increasing their output every week, their air forces at last were definitely superior, they had arrested, if not defeated, the U-Boat

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LAST STAGES OF THE ALLIES' ADVANCE TO THE VICTORY LINE ON THE WESTERN FRONT

campaign. Chances of averting a gigantic military disaster were slight. In 1914, between Liège and Metz on a front of 115 miles, Germany had put some 54 divisions into France. She

had to extricate fully three times as many, with their many times multiplied equipment. Behind her centre lay the difficult Ardennes country where hurried retreat over congested

roads would be little short of débâcle. The gap to the north from Liège to Namur was already threatened by the British, who were nearer the crossings of the Meuse than were the German forces on the Scheldt, and the latter faced therefore the possibility of being driven against the Dutch frontier and forced to surrender. The gap to the south between Mézières and Longuyon was menaced by Gouraud and the Americans, and if the German centre did not succeed in making good its escape before the French-Americans captured Mézières and Sedan, it was likely to be cut off.

F OCH'S LAST BATTLES CUT OFF THE POSSIBILITY OF RETREAT.

So in the last and final effort Foch continued his two main thrusts. The British armies in the north were pointed for Maubeuge and Mons and Namur, to cause the Germans to evacuate hastily their right and centre. Gouraud and the Americans were striking for Mézières and Sedan to block the southern exits. November 1, Haig broke through the defense on the little Rhônelle and began an advance up the Sambre valley. His progress dragged with it the Germans in line north of Cambrai to the sea, and to the south from Oise to Aisne. South of Ghent two French Corps (each of which had an American division with it) on the right of King Albert's Army drove back the Germans along the Scheldt, and the 91st American division captured Oudenarde. Pursuit was not rapid for all roads and railways were

destroyed, yet the enemy was going very slowly, too, clogged by his masses of transport and the airmen swooping low reaped rich harvest. By the 5th the fugitive troops were beyond the Mormal Forest, by the 8th they were flying from the Scheldt; November 9, Maubeuge was occupied and to the south Hirsia by the French. November 11, the Canadians entered Mons.

On the American front Pershing during the last days of October was biting into the last fragments of the Kriemhilde line. To the front of the American left and the French right lay the Forêt de Bourgogne—an extension of the Argonne—and this time the attacking forces lined either edge of the forest and November 2 succeeded in pinching out the Germans, and joined hands. Thus Gouraud had a straight front of 9 miles to the east of Attigny. November 4 he drove the enemy back from the southern position of the Meuse-Aisne Canal from Attigny to Sedan and to avoid being cut off from Mézières his opponents evacuated the line. November 6 the French entered Rethel as the Americans reached the Meuse opposite Sedan, a distance of 25 miles from their starting point on November 1. Gouraud had the longer distance to go, and did not reach Mézières until the evening of the 10th. Meanwhile the Americans had crossed the Meuse and were pressing the enemy east of the river, in the direction of Montmédy, when the news of the Armistice came.



Winter on the Italian Front

CHAPTER LXIX

The Army Machine

THE VAST INTERLOCKING ORGANIZATION NECESSARY TO CREATE A FIGHTING ARMY

BY HERBERT T. WADE

Sometime Captain, Ordnance Department, U. S. A.

TWO notable facts were clearly apparent in the World War as exerting a powerful influence on the conduct of military operations. First it was shown that the time required to train and make an efficient soldier out of an ordinary citizen was less than previously had been supposed, and secondly that with the progress of civilization the organization and administration of an army was a matter of considerable and ever increasing complexity, requiring machinery and men apparently unrelated to actual combat, yet upon whose proper action fighting strength and ability were absolutely dependent.

EFFICIENCY IN ORGANIZATION NECESSARY IN WAR.

The efficiency of a modern industrial enterprise depends largely upon what we are pleased to term its organization, which includes primarily a responsible and intelligent supervision able properly to arrange its various internal and external affairs into what goes by the name of a system, or harmonious whole. To-day in this industrial age, war must be looked upon very much as if it were a vast industrial enterprise, with the fundamental distinction that its object is destruction rather than production, and that broadly speaking,

time and economy of life, effort and treasure are negligible in securing the main end, that is destroying or overcoming the foe.

INDUSTRY ONCE LEARNED FROM WAR, BUT CONDITIONS NOW REVERSED.

In its early days industrial organization had much to learn from warfare, as that was the oldest and most persistent form of organized effort for self-preservation, or for what might be termed to-day direct action. Latterly and in the recent war especially, the army has gone to industrial organization for many models and lessons.

A nation rising in its might decides that a war must be waged or met, and accordingly entrusts the responsibility for developing and utilizing its fighting forces to one or more men. A powerful blow must be delivered or resisted as promptly and effectively as possible according to the decision of a master mind. Obviously that master mind can function only through a system of organization which involves hundreds, thousands, or even millions of individuals. The general must assume available troops, arms, ammunition, equipment, subsistence, clothing, communication, transport, and a thousand and one other matters for which he is responsible but which others subordinate

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to him actually must take care of for him. Failure in one minute element, like the horseshoe nail of the nursery rhyme may, and often does, change the destiny of a people.

ORGANIZATION FOR WAR MUST NECESSARILY GROW MORE COMPLEX.

But it is not alone in material things. The general must know what his own army and that of his enemy are doing



GENERAL PEYTON C. MARSH, CHIEF OF STAFF, U. S. A.

and he must transmit to his subordinates such parts of that knowledge as will aid them in their efforts. In other words to a single mind there must be joined many eyes, ears, and mouths, subordinate minds trained to work in harmony with the master mind; in short there must be organization, which as an industrial engineer has defined it, is a machine properly to carry out what should be done.

In any army such an organization must inevitably become more complex with time. No longer do the nations of the world when waging war restrict themselves to bows and arrows, guns, or any other classes of weapons, but exert their fullest possible strength,

utilizing to the full whatever means industry, science and invention in their ceaseless progress place at their disposal as of use in war. For example, all the resources of chemical industry were employed to produce toxic gases, involving a special organization and personnel in a service ten years ago undreamt of. Today when a general decides to move his army he requires for its transport, standard gauge railways, narrow gauge temporary lines, motor vehicles in plenty, provided, constructed if necessary, maintained and operated with the highest skill even under the strange and forced conditions of war. Clearly such a result only can be secured by an organization that will function from the actual construction of locomotives and cars in the shop to the delivery of supplies to the railroad and even up to the front lines in the field.

THE TASK OF ORGANIZATION CONFIDED TO THE GENERAL STAFF.

To secure the military organization that will produce the proper co-ordination of effort is a task to which the greatest soldiers in Europe through their general staffs have addressed themselves for generations. It was popularly supposed that the German organization represented the last word to be spoken in this connection, but in practice it developed defects many of which doubtless were those inherent in the national mind and character.

A study of the organization of the American Army will be interesting for several reasons. General Pershing did not have a detailed scheme of organization which had been developed under peace conditions at Washington, and, the then existing General Staff in the United States Army was not a general staff in a war sense. Accordingly on landing in France General Pershing realized that his first task was to arrange for the organization and supply of the troops that would be sent over. He was able to formulate a scheme of organization based on the lessons of the war and on the peculiar conditions existing in Europe, and to a less extent in the United States, though of course he followed in many respects practices

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prevailing in the American Service. The general scheme was therefore a composite, and proved very successful.

GENERAL PERSHING ABLE TO DISCARD ALL PRECEDENTS.

As the American Commander-in-Chief had the entire responsibility of the army he necessarily had from the outset his general staff through which he could arrange for its organization,

tively near the scene of hostilities. In fact under General Pershing so far as administration and records were concerned there was established in France practically a War Department leaving to Washington the domestic side of the War operations involved in raising and training troops and munitions supply.

At the head of the General Staff was a Chief-of-Staff, and later a deputy



MOVING THROUGH THE RUINS TOWARD THE FRONT

Here is seen the American 3rd Division passing through the ruins of Esnes, northwest of Verdun, in the Department of Meuse, on September 29, 1918. The business of moving a division with its 28,000 men, its artillery, machine-gun carts, supply wagons, water-wagons, rolling kitchens, ambulances, and other paraphernalia, required no little system and organization.

U. S. Official

operation and supply. Being free to do as seemed best to him in its organization, General Pershing adopted the strongest elements of the French General Staff (Grand Quartier) and the British General Headquarters, fitting them to the American Army with special reference to the outstanding fact that it was operating so far from home and from government administration and supply agencies, thus requiring rather more administrative and supply organization than was needed by Great Britain and France, where there were the regular war offices and ministries functioning compara-

Chief-of-Staff along, with a Secretary of the General Staff, while there was also at General Headquarters, though not a part of the Staff, the Adjutant General in charge of the records, the Inspector General, the Judge Advocate General or legal adviser, the Chief of Artillery and the Chief of the Tank Corps. The General Staff was subdivided into five groups each with its chief, who was an assistant chief of staff with the rank of brigadier general, and in his appropriate field spoke for the commanding general and with his authority, carrying out his orders and his plans.

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THE DIVISIONS OF THE GENERAL STAFF IN A GREAT ARMY.

The Administrative Section, devoted to organization and types of equipment for troops, replacements, tonnage, priority of overseas shipments, the auxiliary welfare associations, and cognate subjects, was in charge of a chief known in Army symbol and records as G-1. Under G-2 was the intelligence section, censorship, enemy intelligence, gathering and disseminating information, preparation of maps and all similar subjects. G-3, Operations, was responsible for all strategic studies and plans, movement and employment of combat troops, and the supervision of combat operations. To G-4, Supply, was given the co-ordination of the supply services including Construction and Transport Departments and the operation of the service of supply, and of the hospitalization and the evacuation of the sick and wounded. The important scheme of education and training with its many schools for the various troops and officers was supervised by G-5, Training, who had general direction and co-ordination of education and training.

Through these various groups, both in the period of organization and training and when engaged in actual hostilities, the American General Headquarters, known as G. H. Q. acted, and headquarters eventually were established at Chaumont from which place as a nerve centre went out the orders and plans governing the American Expeditionary Forces.

THE DIVISION THE UNIT IN THIS ORGANIZATION.

In the army organization scheme worked out by General Pershing and his staff the tactical and administrative unit was the combat division, which was larger than that of the British or the French or German armies, but more suitable for American conditions of training, operation, supply and maintenance. This already has been discussed by General Wood on page 853. The divisions were grouped into Army Corps, and the Army Corps in turn into Field Armies.

The General Staff was reproduced for the field army and on a somewhat less comprehensive basis for the army corps, and the division, where, as can be seen by reference to the tables of organization on page 856, there were three sections instead of five, with G-1 in charge of administration also responsible for supply, or the work of G-4 of the General Staff, while the responsibility for training was assigned to G-3, the chief for operations.

BRITISH AND FRENCH ELEMENTS IN THE ORGANIZATION.

With a General Staff at its head and provision for organizing and developing combat and supply services, a military machine was developed. It should be noted however, that while we are nominally discussing here the American military machine and organization, the main facts have more than an American bearing. In the first place the fundamental principles of military administration and the ends sought are the same, so that whatever the name of the service or the title of the officer, in each of the armies there were men and organization to do that special work. While organization in the American army was based on the special conditions of that service, yet there was little if any prejudice against adopting radical innovations, and the Americans had the great advantage of consultation and advice from the best generals and staff officers of Great Britain and France, who unreservedly put at General Pershing's disposal their knowledge and experience. Even more than that, realizing the crisis, they naturally wanted the best possible and the best organized American army. As a result it may be said that the organization of the American army not only was the best for it, but also represented the best of modern European military science whatever its source.

COMBAT TROOPS DEPENDENT UPON THE SERVICES OF SUPPLY.

This new military organization involved not merely the line troops but the successful organization of the services of supply both with the combat units and behind the lines. The distinction between combat troops and

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those of the services of supply, as they were termed in the late war, is one of function rather than of actual service or usefulness. For a division, or for a corps or an army, there must be certain service of supply troops, and the fighting troops are dependent upon the supply and technical troops. Obviously the first line men could fire ammunition only as it was supplied,

COMBAT TROOPS NOT THE ONLY SOLDIERS IN DANGER.

It must be emphasized here that when troops are organized primarily for non-combat functions, they must not be considered either in military law or in fact non-combatants but soldiers, and further it does not follow that they are not exposed to the same if not greater dangers than the line troops. In fact



BRITISH OUTPOST READING MESSAGE BROUGHT BY DOG

advance only so far as food could follow, change their position only as transportation was available, and so on.

The division therefore must be organized to take care of itself in the field, securing and distributing its supplies and ammunition, establishing and maintaining its means of communication and observation, providing its own shelter and temporary fortifications, using its own transport, and similar functions. In these duties in a single combat division of over 28,000 men some 6,000 men are engaged, while with the corps and the army there were additional supply and technical troops usually of special branches.

the first United States unit to participate in active fighting was a railway construction regiment, the Eleventh U. S. Engineers, then serving with the British Army, who in the attack on Cambrai forsook their tools for rifles and fought so valiantly as to be mentioned by Marshal Haig in his report.

Signal Corps men often established lines of communication under fire, or crawled out in the enemy territory to intercept his lines or tap them for their own purposes. It is quite unnecessary to refer to the surgeons, hospital and ambulance corps men and nurses working in most advanced zones or to the motor transport and train services

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bringing up ammunition and supplies to the very front lines mid shell fire and bombs from hostile airplanes.

THE MANIFOLD DUTIES OF ENGINEERS AND SIGNAL CORPS.

In the division the engineer regiment was organized primarily for the construction of field fortifications. But

communication by every practical means within and between the arms of the fighting forces, using night and day visual signals, wire and radio telegraph and telephone, and any other form of communication, so that every headquarters would be in touch with its own units and with each other.



BRITISH MILITARY POLICE CONTROLLING TRAFFIC

this was only one of their duties, as they must attend to the roads over which the advance proceeds, build bridges, lay out camps and make surveys and maps as required, construct field fortifications, shelters and dug-outs of the type required for the special plan, time, or operation. They erect or remove wire entanglements or other obstacles, place or destroy mines, operate search lights, install water supply and lighting systems, and in short do such field construction work as is required in operations and in camps. The construction equipment for building, bridging, and other work was assembled in an engineer train motor or horse drawn that accompanied the division.

Next with the division were the signal corps troops, designed to supply

THE VARIOUS TRAINS BELONGING TO A DIVISION.

Each division of course had its various trains for supplies and ammunitions; involving motor trucks or animal transport to bring up supplies and ammunition from the dumps or railhead to the front line for issue through the various supply or ordnance officers. These trains were fully organized with a veterinary detachment to look out for the animals, and motor mechanics for the trucks, and would bring up the material from the points of distribution following the lines of traffic communication set down definitely by the staff officer in charge after a study of maps and the country itself and rigorously enforced by another service of like nature, the military police.

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The Military Police of the division not only had to preserve order, look out for spies, and prevent straggling, but as mentioned they had the important task of keeping open the appointed routes of communication, often inadequate in number and in quality for the heavy traffic to which they were subjected. The military police served as guides and regulators

keeping camps and men healthy or in restoring to health and security the wounded and sick was most important from a military standpoint. A casualty from disease reduced fighting strength just as much as a bullet.

Manifestly it is impossible in the present compass to enumerate all the administrative officers and supply services that accompanied an American



A VIEW OF THE HARBOR OF BREST

U. S. Official

of traffic and their intelligent handling of the movement of the vast supply and ammunition convoys had much to do with the success of the operations. Of course in billets or camp the military police were responsible for the maintenance of order.

The sanitary train and the medical and other personnel, provided a field hospital for the prompt reception, treatment, and evacuation of the casualties from the battle front, together with such allied activities as ambulance companies with motor and animal transport, supply service, and temporary infirmary for the sick. In this connection it must be remembered that the sanitary work involved in

division in the field, as for example, the adjutant general and the clerical force, the ordnance detachment to make repairs to guns and equipment, the gas officer and the chemical warfare troops when assigned, and so on.

GENERAL PERSHING'S SCHEME FOR THE SERVICES OF THE REAR.

It should be clear however that any body of troops can function only as they are supported from and are in communication with a well provided base being dependent upon external agencies and organizations for regular and special supplies of ammunition, food replacements, and facilities for evacuating and taking care of the casualties.

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This was very early realized by General Pershing, and he developed a scheme of organization for a complete service of the rear, which he cabled to Washington on September 18, 1917, listed item by item the troops considered necessary for the services of supply, including a variety of units, many of which never had existed in the United States Army, but which European ex-

THE SERVICE OF SUPPLY IMPORTANT IN EVERY ARMY.

Therefore an important part of the military machine in all the armies dealt with the essential activities behind the lines, or as its principal functions were the procurement, storage and transportation of supplies it came to be known officially in the American Expeditionary Forces as the



THE CAMP LAUNDRY AT MEHUS

perience had demonstrated necessary or desirable. This arrangement, which was adopted at Washington, clearly recognized that under such conditions as prevailed in Europe, supplies must be brought to the combat troops from bases of comparative safety at a greater or less distance, which could not be supplied by the adjacent territory, but, especially in the case of the British and American armies must be provided from the respective home countries. Consequently there were required for these armies special port facilities, adequate railways to the supply bases, warehouse and storage accommodation, and facilities for the supply of the advanced bases and distribution to the troops in the field.

Services of Supply, usually abbreviated to the initial letters S. O. S. It seemed desirable to General Pershing to relieve his own Headquarters of this concern and accordingly the organization was established officially on February 16th, 1918, as the troops were beginning to come over in quantities, and later in July it was placed under the command of General J. G. Harbord, who had been General Pershing's first Chief-of-Staff and had commanded the Second Division.

This Service of Supply which might be grouped in three main divisions of supplies, munitions, and administration included 11 sections as follows: Quartermaster, Medical Corps, Engineer Department, Ordnance, Signal

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Corps, Air Service, Motor Transport Service, Chemical Warfare, Transportation, Provost Marshal, which was later transferred to General Headquarters, and the General Purchasing Board. Each of these sections was under the command of an officer of the corps or bureau concerned of appropriate rank, usually a major general. The commanding general of

of sick and wounded, etc., between the front and the national bases. But the American Service of Supply was even more, for its activities gradually extended over the whole of France and Great Britain and parts of Italy. In fact a French military critic has compared it to a full ministry such as might have been secured in France by combining the French departments of War, of



AMERICAN FIELD HOSPITAL AT TOURS

Hospitals for American sick or wounded were prepared before any considerable number had been under fire. This is the hospital at Tours and can be recognized by the crosses upon the roofs. U. S. Official

the Services of Supply had a staff corresponding in its three sections to similar sections of the General Staff and was responsible to the Commander-in-chief for the supply of the army. The headquarters of the Service of Supply was located at Tours, a city 145 miles southwest of Paris, on the Loire, and a junction point for several railways from the base ports.

COMPARISON WITH THE BRITISH AND FRENCH ORGANIZATIONS.

This American Service of Supply corresponded to the Direction Générale de l'Arrière, or rear service of the French Army, which had the supply operations and duties, transportation

Public Works, and Transportation. In Great Britain the War, Munition, and Air ministries possessed wide powers and functions that did not have to be exercised by its army.

In short the Service of Supply was an army in itself and the rank and organization of its officers and men stood for responsibility and discipline no less than in the front line trenches. In many of its offices, shops and stores could be seen the motto, "All the fighting is not done at the front," and if fighting is the overcoming of difficulties this is evidently true. Even in numbers here was an army. On the day of the Armistice there were reported

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in the Services of Supply of the A. E. F. some 386,000 soldiers, in addition to 31,000 German prisoners and thousands of civilian laborers. But, as has been said, the non-combatant troops went up to the very battle zones. Here there were 160,000, most of whom were engaged in operating the lines of distribution to the troops at the front. The immensity of this entire work can

freight for its supply. Now a portion of this material could be, and some 10,000,000 tons actually was, secured in Europe, but it was early realized that America must provide the bulk of its supply for its armies. Therefore to all practical purposes the base of the United States Army was the American continent. Through the Channel ports and by the railways of Northern France,



UNLOADING GOODS FOR THE AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES

Sleepy French ports woke to new life during the war. Several which had had little commerce from the beginning of the war until the United States entered became busy places. Labor saving devices were installed to hasten the unloading of supply ships. This shows a portion of the docks at Bassens, near Bordeaux. U. S. Official

be inferred from the fact that the non-combat troops in the American Expeditionary Force never numbered less than 28 per cent, while with the British this ratio was often exceeded. With a maximum strength of the A. E. F. reaching 2,073,877 the actual number of the Services of Supply personnel totaled 668,312 including 23,772 civilian employees on November 11, 1918.

THE ARMY BASES IN FRANCE AND ELSEWHERE.

The Services of Supply also dealt with vast amounts of material. In round figures an army of 2,000,000 men requires 50,000 tons a day of railway

British supplies were sent forward, while the manufacturing region about Paris was a source of supply for the French, inevitably resulting in an overload of the railway lines from this region to the battle front. The British had magazines or store houses in their home districts with special depots for the army abroad including several home bases and also bases in France. The first of those was at Boulogne and later they were established at Amiens, Havre and St. Nazaire. Consequently the American ports of debarkation and supply bases must be organized so as not to interfere with them.

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Port facilities were to be developed requiring the construction of docks, railway roads and buildings. Base sections, nine in number, were established to include territory at and surrounding the principal ports, and from them were transported men, animals, and supplies by sea, rail or inland waterways. These base sections, three of which were outside of France, may be identified both by their numbers and by their headquarters which were

The general plan was to accumulate an allowance of supplies: for 45 days in the base sections, for 30 days in the intermediate, and for 15 days in the advance section, but after the sea had been rendered fairly safe for transports the total time allowance was reduced to 45 days distributed proportionately. From the advance sections supplies were forwarded to the railheads, there to be distributed to the various organizations by motor or animal transport.



CANADIAN AMMUNITION TRAIN GOING TO THE FRONT

located as follows: 1, St. Nazaire, 2, Bordeaux, 3, London, 4, Havre, 5, Brest, 6, Marseille, 7, La Rochelle, 8, Italy, 9, Rotterdam and Antwerp. In these base sections the shipping from America was unloaded and the cargoes stored until required. There was an intermediate storage section nearer the front with headquarters at Nevers, and an advance section extending to the zone of operations. Within this zone many of the earlier divisions were trained and billeted. The headquarters of the advance section was at Neufchâteau, with regulating stations at Is-sur-Tille, Liffol-le-Grand, and St. Dizier to maintain a steady flow of supplies.

An American combat division required the equivalent of 25 French railway carloads of supplies daily delivered at a point within reach of motor or horse drawn transportation. In the opposite direction these facilities were employed to remove the wounded from the battle zones and, when conditions permitted, material to be salvaged.

PREPARATIONS FOR FOUR MILLION MEN IN THE BASE AREAS.

When American troops arrived in Europe the first step was to provide for their debarkation and their movement along with their supplies and extra equipment to training areas. Accordingly port facilities were planned on a scale to provide eventually

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for an army of 4,000,000 men and included the construction of docks, railroads, warehouses, hospitals, barracks, and stables in base sections where such facilities were either non-existent or inadequate. At the ports themselves some 160 new berths or docking facilities were projected, and about one half of these were completed and in use at the time of the

and its activities. Starting with 2,000,000 square feet of covered storage secured from the French there was actually constructed some 20,000,000 square feet additional of such space. There were hospital buildings and groups, one of which at Mars, with a counterpart at Mesves, a 4000 bed convalescent camp and a base hospital, involved 700 buildings covering a



STATION AT PAUILLAC TURNED INTO EMBARKATION CAMP

Armistice. To move troops and materials required new standard gauge railroad track, not so much new lines, for those of the French were available, but for cut-offs and double tracking at congested points of existing systems, and especially adequate switching or storage track and sidings at yards and depots. In this way some 1002 miles of standard gauge track were laid.

Road construction and repair also was undertaken where necessary, as with vast fleets of motor trucks to supplement rail lines, proper highways were a positive necessity for prompt transportation. Building construction undertaken by the engineer troops was as extensive and varied as the army

ground space of 33 acres and provided with the usual utilities of a city such as roads, water, sewerage and lighting.

SOME UNITS PREVIOUSLY UNKNOWN IN THE AMERICAN ARMY.

For such constructions there were forestry and woodworking regiments, using to a large extent American woodworking machinery, which produced some 200,000,000 feet of lumber, 4,000,000 railroad ties, 300,000 cords of fuel, 35,000 pieces of piling and miscellaneous products. There were quarrying regiments to secure stone for building and use on the roads, while three French cement mills were leased from French owners and operated by American troops. The engineers fur-

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nished the water supply service for the army and also constructed the sewage disposal plants. There was a geological section, a mechanical or power section, and a camouflage section which maintained important shops where the necessary material was turned out mostly by French women, to be installed nearer the front as needed. The engineers also operated search-

THE DUTIES OF THE DIRECTOR GENERAL OF TRANSPORTATION.

To operate, maintain, and construct all railways and canals under American control together with their necessary appurtenances was the task assigned to the department, and a Director General of Transportation, General W. W. Atterbury, of the Pennsylvania Railroad, was appointed, assisted by



UNITED STATES SOLDIERS PREPARING LUMBER, BORDEAUX

U. S. Official

light service for the front and important advance stations of the S.O.S., in addition to their other duties.

A Transportation Department was organized, as the American army was to operate certain French lines to transport men and supplies to the appointed areas. With the deterioration of the French equipment much repair and replacement were necessary, and the new organization had to operate according to unusual practice and methods. This was a new undertaking as the United States Army never had had a transportation corps as a separate organization and there was no special branch qualified to be expanded for such functions.

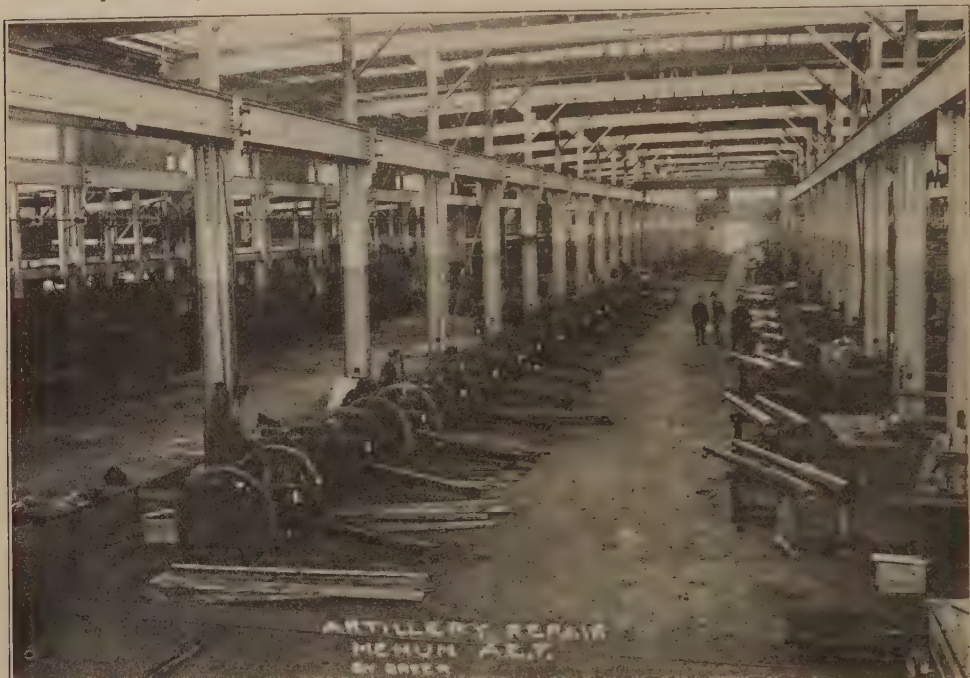
a deputy director, engineer of construction, manager of light (narrow gauge or portable) railways, manager of roads, business manager, general manager, and a deputy director with each army commander.

There were construction regiments, operating regiments, and shop regiments, with qualified and trained specialists both among officers and enlisted men, the total transportation personnel at the time of the Armistice amounting to some 2000 officers and 53,000 men. The shop troops assembled for service nearly 1500 standard gauge locomotives and almost 20,000 cars brought over from the United States and repairs were made to 1947 French locomotives

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and 57,385 French cars, thus increasing the available rolling stock of the Allies by these amounts. The operation troops were no less successful under the difficult conditions imposed by foreign methods, but their adaptability was no less conspicuous than their technical skill and resourcefulness. From July 1918 to November 11, of that year, the daily tonnage handled at the port

vice, and railhead supply units, all in charge of specially organized units with qualified officers. Naturally to the Quartermaster's Department came the greatest tonnage (3,606,000 short tons to April 30, 1919,) and the greatest proportion of the supplies shipped from the United States, which were augmented by purchases made in Europe. These supply agencies func-



THE ARTILLERY REPAIR SHOP AT MEHUN

Picture by Greer

terminals increased from 17,000 to 45,000 tons.

THE ENLARGED FUNCTIONS OF THE QUARTERMASTER'S DEPARTMENT.

Much of the freight requiring transportation was the necessary and routine supplies of the army which was the concern of the Quartermaster corps. In the American Expeditionary Forces its functions were summarized as involved in the payment of personnel and general disbursements, providing fuel, forage, and clothing, maintaining a remount service, laundries and baths, disinfection of clothing, salvage service, quartermaster shops, depots, and storehouses, cold storage and refrigeration, graves registration, garden ser-

tioned so successfully that with the exception of early 1918, when there was some delay in receiving clothing and that furnished was of inferior quality, and for occasional shortages of forage, no army according to General Pershing ever was better provided.

The Chief Quartermaster was at the headquarters of the S. O. S. but with G-4 of each army there was a quartermaster, and likewise with G-1 of each corps and division, and throughout the army and the services in the rear, were supply, labor and other units, such organizations as butchery companies, bakery companies, ice plant and refrigerating companies, fire protection companies, and other special

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agencies, all of course organized on a military basis and subject to military discipline.

THE VITAL MILITARY IMPORTANCE OF QUICK COMMUNICATION.

Modern industry deservedly gives high rank to promptness, accuracy, and ease of communication, and its very great importance on the battle front has been mentioned. General

in the zone of advance, besides meteorological, pigeon, and general photographic services. The Signal Corps even maintained a cable across the English Channel and at the close of the War had to its credit 4,000 kilometers (2485 miles) of telephone and telegraph lines on its own poles and operated a system with 215,500 kilometers (133,657 miles) of line. Many of the best women



LONDON BUS USED AS PIGEON LOFT

The London bus was put to many different uses during the war. Sometimes it transported men, sometimes it was used as sleeping quarters, and here is one transformed into a movable pigeon loft where the winged messengers were housed. Pigeons were of considerable use in spite of the noise and confusion which might well have frightened them.

Headquarters must be in communication not only with the battle front and with the base depots and the training areas, but even with the very seat of Government. In charge of all communications was the Signal Corps whose function it was to supply, install and operate the general telephone and telegraph service throughout the zone of the armies, and thence develop and extend it in connection with new or existing lines to and throughout the rear areas. In addition to the work with the combat units there were radio, press and intercept stations in a complete radio network maintained

operators in the United States were in the telephone service abroad.

Fighting armies do not confine themselves to railway lines but distribute themselves through the country at large. To-day in war as in industry the gasoline driven motor vehicle has an important rôle ranging all the way from the conveying of troops and supplies along roads to the handling of heavy cannon by tractors. It seemed appropriate to make motor transport, a special department of the S. O. S., as indeed it was also of the War Department, back in the United States. In the zone of the S. O. S.

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this service controlled the use of motor vehicles, giving them technical supervision, and training chauffeurs and a skilled personnel including repair mechanics in large numbers.

By arrangement with the French it was possible for the troops to live in the buildings of the districts in which they were training or operating, and accordingly a Renting, Requisition, and Claims service was established to procure billeting areas, supervise the quartering of troops, and to have general charge of the renting, leasing, and requisitioning of land and buildings required by the American Army. Inasmuch as this service was given authority to settle claims at once it facilitated the business operations of the Army and made progress smoother.

THE IMPORTANT DUTIES ASSIGNED TO ARMY ORDNANCE.

To supply the soldier with munitions, and specially ammunition, is a leading function of the supply service, for the fighting man is a fighting man only so long as his weapons act effectively. An individual or unit can transport but a limited and soon expended amount of ammunition, and rifles, machine guns, and the heavier ordnance are likely to require repairs due to wear and tear and inevitable failures. This was the function of the Army Ordnance, a service more closely confined to material of war than the British Army Ordnance. Supplies were collected and assembled in base depots, intermediate storage depots, and advance depots in accordance with the general supply scheme. In advance of these were army depots and dumps sufficiently near to the battle area to permit of direct delivery to the troops. This arrangement insured adequate supplies of ammunition and it flowed forward almost automatically to the points needed. In the First Army alone some 8,000 soldiers were engaged in ammunition supply.

The great base ordnance shop which the A. E. F. had in operation but not altogether completed at Mehun, was to have a capacity of relining monthly 1245 guns ranging from 75mm. to 155mm calibre, the carriage shop was

to repair approximately 2,000 ordnance gun vehicles, while the small arms shop was to care for 150,000 rifles, 500 pistols and 20,000 machine guns a month. At the advance shops was special equipment for light repair work while the mobile repair shops, which were ingenious combinations of tools mounted on motor trucks and trailers, could handle repair work in the field. One of these latter on the Soissons front was able to put into action against the retreating Germans 28 pieces of their own artillery ranging from 77 to 210 mm in calibre. In another case American guns intentionally put out of service on a withdrawal, were recaptured and made again useful after a few days by one of these outfits. "Fit to fight" applies to a gun as well as to a man, and a repair shop attached to the 35th Division had a record of not having a gun out of action for over five minutes. All kinds of repairs were made by these shops ranging from watches and typewriters to steam rollers and motor vehicles.

THE AIRCRAFT SERVICE AND THE TANK SERVICE.

In aviation the Service of Supply behind the lines involved the procurement of airplanes and material from the Allies, and the training of aviators, observers, and mechanics, as well as the preparations that were being made to handle material from the United States, including the installation of the armament. Of course the actual combat, bombing, and observation work was done in connection with troops on the firing front, but for administrative purposes the Aircraft Service was attached to the S. O. S. Supply and repair work on a vast scale was established as at the aviation base of Romorantin for assembly and repair, at the acceptance park at Orly, and at various advance points. There were also balloon companies using some 295 balloons.

The organization for supply, maintenance and repair of tanks was not entirely effected nor was the projected equipment secured at the time of the Armistice, but the organization was ready to take over the American built

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machines as they arrived, which was not until after the Armistice. These complicated machines, even if they did reproduce primitive ideas, required many mechanics and supply and repair agencies.

THE DUTIES OF THE CHEMICAL WARFARE SERVICE.

Comparatively few men might actually release a gas wave from special projectors, or as was later the practice, fire explosive projectiles filled with toxic gases, operate smoke screens, or flame throwers, but to provide such appliances and materials meant a well organized host of specialists. In fact so important was this work, that what was once a branch of the Engineer Corps, the gas service, was made a separate service, and later on March 5, 1918, was organized at Tours as the Chemical Warfare Service, with three main divisions, military, technical, and production and supply, for which shortly before the Armistice an increase up to 1315 Officers and 17,205 enlisted men had been provided though not actually realized. This service had charge of training at the gas school regimental and battalion gas officers selected from line organizations, and also the providing of gas masks and instruction in their use, as well as in the detection of gas.

The supply of filling materials for gas projectiles was of course important, as at the time of the Armistice 20 per cent of all projectiles made in the United States up to 220 mm were filled with gas and this proportion was to be increased to 25 per cent after January 1, 1919. The First Gas Regiment took an important part in the Meuse-Argonne offensive. The Chemical Warfare Service maintained important chemical central depots for gas masks and other supplies at Montoir, St. Sulpice, and Gièvres. There were also laboratories, experimental fields, and a school for the Chemical personnel.

THE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT NEVER BEFORE SO IMPORTANT.

The natural duty and function of the Medical Department to save and preserve human life and health, can be considered in its military and economic

bearing quite as much as from the humanitarian standpoint. The greater the effective strength of the army the more powerful it naturally is, and this can be secured only by a personnel, organization, and equipment that provides the best of care and attention for the individual. In addition to providing personnel and supplies for the combat troops, an important duty of the Medical Department with the S. O. S., there were many and complex problems behind the lines. Hospitalization was a single important item, involving as it did adequate and even excess preparation for possible demands, illustrated perhaps by the statement that on November 12, 1918, the number of patients in hospitals reached a maximum of 193,026, and that there were in all 214,467 men evacuated in the zone of the armies, and of these 11,281 were sent on trains to base ports. The handling of these wounded meant vast numbers of ambulances and hospital trains. In this work of course the Army Nurse Corps participated performing their special duties under war conditions. The Dental corps was also an important agency for health as were various sanitary units.

HOW THE MILITARY BOARD OF ALLIED SUPPLY WAS DEVELOPED.

All of the supply services mentioned naturally were called upon to make extensive purchases in Europe and at an early date General Pershing created a General Purchasing Board to control and co-ordinate purchases and contracts made by the various services and to act in co-operation with all the Allies. This work under a General Purchasing Agent developed, and led to an Inter-Allied Board for Purchasing and later to the Military Board of Allied Supply in the unification of military supplies and utilities for the various armies was secured.

THE IMPORTANT DUTIES OF THE INTELLIGENCE DEPARTMENT.

While not concerned with supplies or material things especially there was another very important element of the Army machine. One section of the General Staff under a Chief, G-2,

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was devoted to intelligence, but G-2 also was a feature of the Army, Corps, and Division Staffs, and every unit from the battalion up had its intelligence detachment varying in its personnel and equipment. The intelligence office utilized all the resources of the technical troops and services.

Observations from aircraft were transmitted to the artillery and assisted

significant information was worked up into summaries for General Headquarters, summaries for each division, summaries of general intelligence, and also such special or other information as should be brought to particular or general attention. Results of investigations by spies, information from the Allies, and other material all had to be considered for advantageous use.



GERMAN TELEPHONE CENTRAL NEAR THE FRONT

A large proportion of all orders given during the contest passed over telephone or telegraph wires. The region near the front was threaded with a network of wires which lay on the ground or under it, a hut camouflaged, a cellar or a cave served as a central office, and often was under fire.

Henry Ruschin

in their ranging. Enemy wireless might be intercepted by Signal Corps men, and even their wire lines were tapped or intercepted, by various ingenious devices. The raid into the enemy's lines of course carried with it excitement and naturally varied in its results as well as in its methods. In the larger organizations all the available means were provided for by appropriate detachments organized for sound and flash ranging, radio interception stations, and other methods by which the enemy positions and the location and nature of his artillery might be placed. From whatever sources obtained all

Not the least important intelligence activity in the American Expeditionary Forces was the preparation and issue of maps, for which facilities existed at the base printing plant and at General Headquarters. Base maps were prepared and mobile printing outfits accompanied corps and army headquarters upon which any special features as revealed by the intelligence service could be printed at short notice. In fact just before and during an action combat maps were provided, so that often each individual officer participating might receive one. During the active operations over 5,000,000

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maps were printed and issued by the American army.

CARE TAKEN TO PRESERVE THE RECORD OF THE INDIVIDUAL SOLDIER.

In the general conception of an army as a mass the individual is apt to be overlooked, but that is not the official point of view for each officer and man as well as organization figures in an elaborate series of records. The Adjutant General's Department had its Statistical Division to keep a record of the location, duties, health and status of every individual in the military service, as well as the location and strength of units. At Bourges was located the Central Records Office where reports from the battle front, evacuation and base hospitals, convalescent-leave areas, reclassification camps, and base ports were received and prepared for transmission to Washington. General Pershing tells us that each of 299,599 casualties was considered an individual case, and of the men classified as "missing in action,"—14,000 at signing of the Armistice—there were but 22 on August 31, 1919. The Adjutant General's office not only printed and distributed all orders from General Headquarters, but had charge of the mail, maintaining a motor dispatch service with 20 carrier routes over 2300 miles of road. A Military Postal Express Service was organized to handle all mail and operated 169 fixed and mobile post offices and railway post offices.

To assist the Commander-in-Chief and General Headquarters in ascertaining the general condition and operation of the forces and to furnish an independent agency to investigate and report there was the Inspector General's Department, covering the activities of the entire American Expeditionary Forces.

MILITARY JUSTICE AND THE PROVOST MARSHAL GENERAL.

The army of 2,000,000 men had its internal and external legal problem requiring the services of lawyers, especially those versed in military law not merely for courts martial and military investigations, but for business matters and points of commercial

intercourse with foreign governments and citizens. This was the field of the Department of Military Justice under the Judge Advocate General.

The maintenance of order within its own organization would seem a very natural function for an army, but it has been found that a special body for this purpose, especially where individuals and units were off duty, was desirable. Accordingly the Provost Marshal General's Department was organized later functioning under the First or Administrative Section of the General Staff. The principal division of this department was the Military Police, which became a very important and useful service and was increased in numbers to one per cent of the strength of the A.E.F. There were provost marshals and military police for armies, corps, and divisions for sections of the S. O. S., in charge of villages occupied by American troops, and cities in which they were either passing or stationed. This department also had prisoner of war escort companies, a criminal investigation department, and the circulation department. The result of these activities was general good order and well regulated traffic.

The various fields of activity of the more important sections of the S. O. S. and General Headquarters going to make up the army machine have been summarized separately but it must not be inferred that these were disconnected and unrelated. All had to be operated together and the most complete harmony was naturally the underlying basis. A single order issued from G. H. Q. might set into motion simultaneously all of the various agencies we have mentioned besides others, and upon their prompt functioning might and did depend the complete success of the contemplated movement. Not only in action but in rest, there was the extraordinary system which alone could co-ordinate, correlate, and make effective such diverse elements. Truly there was the system, but in the system there was the individual, and whether he was on the front line or back in a supply office or storehouse, he was doing his part, necessary and effective. The Army

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overseas had its organization, but it also had in it the individuals whose efforts were crowned by results.

THE PART PLAYED BY THE OPERATIONS SECTION OF THE GENERAL STAFF.

The methods of organizing, administering and supplying the army have been explained and there remains to be described the workings of that Section of the General Staff which deployed the

concentration in the desired region and gave to the army headquarters concerned general instructions for the proposed attack. During the battle, G-3 at G. H. Q., relieved the army of exhausted or reduced divisions, sending them to rest areas or into the line on quiet fronts, and turned over to the army fresh or reconstituted divisions to maintain the battle. While every



A CONCERT HALL AT VERDUN USED AS A SALVAGE DEPOT

troops against the enemy. G-3, or the Operations Section at G. H. Q., made the studies and prepared the plans of campaign for the approval of the Commander-in-Chief. With the approved plan or policy as a basis, G-3 controlled all movements of combat troops in France, brought about the necessary

branch or department of the organization of the A. E. F., was essential, all were, in effect, subordinate to the purpose of the Operations Section of the General Staff, which placed the troops on the battle field and directed them against the enemy, the ultimate purpose of an army.



On Italy's Alpine Front

CHAPTER LXX

Italy's Hour of Triumph

ITALY STANDS FIRM AGAINST ATTACK, AND IN TURN DESTROYS THE AUSTRIAN ARMIES

IN the twelve-month between November, 1917, when, panting, shaken, half-stunned, Italy gathered together her forces to hold the foe where he stood, and November, 1918, when she lifted her head, weary but victorious, to see the last of the exhausted enemy staggering back across her war-racked borders, the Austro-Italian front was not the most conspicuous sector of the European battle-field; but the significance of what happened there must not be overlooked nor underrated.

ITALY COMES TO REALIZE THE EXTENT OF ALLIED ENDEAVOR.

However, in that earlier November, clouds of depression hung low. Loss of precious miles and of valuable stores of war material, the reversal of months of indescribable effort, loomed large before the immediate vision. Yet, withal, there came to Italy, in that black hour, a new and sustaining sense of having part in a great united movement. With Sir Douglas Haig engaging German reserves at Cambrai, with British and French troops marching across the plains of Lombardy and Venetia, with two Allied commanders of proven skill and ability, General Plumer and General Fayolle, lending support and advice, with the American Red Cross bringing instant relief for sudden necessities, the army and the civil population began to have some

realization of the actual extent of the Allied organization. And their own spirit, as we have seen, was braced by failure itself and aroused to the utmost endeavor.

HOW ONE BRIGADE SHOWED ITS DETERMINATION.

As an example of such heroic response to a supreme demand, after exhausting and disheartening labors, take the attitude of the survivors of the Calabria Brigade in the Monte Tomba sector, late in November. An eye-witness gives the picture. They were, he says, "completely worn out, red-eyed, and stumbling as they marched. But they knew what they had done and they were proud of it. Think what they had done. For twelve days, they had marched with all their impedimenta, down from the mountains they had held inviolate. Then they had turned and fought, at once, on a new, unprepared line. They had slept in the open, with only one blanket apiece. The rain had beaten on them and the frosts had chilled them. When they were not fighting they were digging, and hot food reached them once a day at most. But they never flinched. And at the end of a long struggle that had so fearfully thinned their ranks they answered once more the call to attack, and crowned their efforts with victory."

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THE ITALIANS STRENGTHEN THEIR POSITION IN THE MOUNTAINS.

Around the gateways of the north, where the armies had fallen back to the last ridges of the plateau, vigilance could never be relaxed; and there, as we have noted in Chapter XLVII, the positions had been strengthened in December and January, to prevent the Austrians from moving down into the plains when snows cut off their communications in the rear. The French by their success on Monte Tomba (in the Monte Grappa section) and by their drive on the Piave, east of the mountain, had forced the enemy back from the salient threatening the region of Montebelluna and Treviso. A second gateway had been made secure when the Italians in the Valstagna section established a firm footing upon Col del Rosso, Col d'Echele, Monte di Val Bella and other heights. Valstagna stands at the junction of the Frenzela Torrent with the Brenta River, the valley leading thence down to Bassano. (Refer to maps on p. 779 and p. 1179).

February and March brought heavy falls of snow, with cloudy skies and much mist. Aside from minor raids and artillery bombardments there was little active performance except by airmen. German bombing squadrons had joined the Austrians; British and some French aviators had come to reinforce the Italians. These Allied fliers devoted their efforts to military raids upon railway junctions, encampments, and aerodromes, while the enemy made attack after attack of wanton destruction upon Padua, Venice and other towns on the Venetian plains. After suffering under more than forty air bombardments, Venice, on the night of February 26, was visited by a raid that lasted for eight hours, the machines (as many as fifty) passing over in waves and dropping, in all, more than three hundred bombs. Inevitably, much damage resulted, and yet "the escapes were extraordinary." The finest treasures remained uninjured. Before summer had set in, the Italians and their allies were dominant in the air.

ITALIANS ABLE TO ASSIST ON THE WESTERN FRONT.

Interchanges of experience and information were taking place, meanwhile, among the officers of the British, French and Italian forces in their new conjunction. In particular, as Sir Herbert Plumer reported, the British were taking pains "to illustrate the value of counter-battery work" learned in France and the Italians were eagerly receptive. As the strain on the French front increased, various shifts were made. General Plumer returned to Ypres before the middle of March, to be succeeded in Italy by Lord Cavan. "If anyone could have replaced General Plumer, it was Lord Cavan." Three French divisions, two British divisions, and, later, the Italian Second Army Corps were transferred to France. On May 10, the Government published a report that 250,000 Italian troops had been concentrated there.

In Italy itself re-organization and improvements in army conditions were going forward, and, while results were not uniform, real gains had been made. At least parts of the army were better cared for. This was not accomplished without sacrifice on the part of the people of Italy. In spite of cold weather and a disastrous epidemic of influenza, they gave up all they could of food and blankets to share with their brothers on the fighting front. Coal was not to be had for private use, that winter; and the supply for manufacturing purposes was scanty, high-priced and poor in quality. Nevertheless, largely through the energy of the Ansaldo Company, field artillery and other equipment were turned out in surprising quantities. When needed, the supplies were on hand in abundance.

AGREEMENT IS REACHED WITH THE SLAVS OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

The Congress of the Oppressed Nationalities of Austria-Hungary, held at Rome in April and resulting in the Pact of Rome, emphasized the ideas of "common suffering," "common aims," and a "common enemy," setting aside for future consideration the difficult problems of territorial settle-



A HEARTY WELCOME FOR THE BRITISH IN VENICE

The much-fed and much-photographed pigeons of Saint Mark's, during the weeks when Venice lay dark and partly deserted, missed the familiar attentions of tourists, even of the regular inhabitants. There is nothing half-hearted about the greeting they are giving these new-found British friends.



A CELLAR REFUGE IN PADUA

The last three nights of December 1917 were marked by air raids upon Padua. The number of killed and injured was astonishingly low, especially during the third raid, which lasted six hours. The damage to buildings was extensive. The picture shows Paduans sheltered in the vaults under the palace, thrown open to the people by the Countess Papafava.

N. Y. Times

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ment. The immediate outcome was a joining of Italian and Jugo-Slav forces in systematic propaganda work, carried out largely through ex-prisoners belonging to the oppressed races, and the appearance of former subjects of the Hapsburgs in Italian uniforms with the Italian fighting force.

By the decree of the Inter-Allied Supreme Council of War at Abbé-



PASUBIO, 7000 FEET IN AIR

Pasubio, guarding Vallarsa, "redeemed" and held through the war by Alpini, "saving Italy in May 1916 and November 1917," is here the theatre of an air duel.

ville on May 3, the Italian front was made officially the right wing of the Allied battle line and included under the supreme command of General Foch.

These developments, in the words of Mr. Trevelyan, "went well with the ever-increasing importance of America, in the mind's eye of the Italian soldier. The new National Internationalism of Mr. Wilson and his Fourteen Points vaguely adumbrated a broader outlook and a brighter age ahead, beginning with a better chance of winning the war. There seemed a new tide in the world's affairs, and

Giuseppe vaguely felt that he was a part of it, while the enemy was fighting against the future. By the time that the Austrians tardily launched their great offensive, the Italian soldiers had an idea that their own morale was at least as good as the enemy's. And in military morale there is nothing good or bad but thinking makes it so."

GENERAL DIAZ WAITS FOR THE PROMISED AUSTRO-GERMAN ASSAULT.

The Italian General Staff, well aware that the enemy were planning to confirm the undermining work begun at Caporetto by some stroke to be dealt after the snows should melt, gave careful attention to indications all along the front. Concentration of new hostile units around Lake Garda seemed to foreshadow a drive from the Trentino, either west of the lake in the direction of Brescia and the metallurgic centre or east across the Astico River and the Sette Comuni (Seven Communes) and so down the Brenta River. Naturally, there was reason for including the Piave front in the speculation, too.

A month before the Austrian offensive started, two more gateways to the plains were effectively blocked. On May 10, Alpine Arditi by "a wonderful feat of military and gymnastic valor" captured Monte Corno, lying between Vallarsa and the great Pasubio massif, and commanding the opening from Rovereto to Vicenza. And on May 15, Monte Asolone, between the Brenta River and Monte Grappa was partly recovered. Both these mountains, or rather plateaux, had been strongly fortified by the enemy. Toward the end of the month two other successful ventures were made at the extreme ends of the front,—one among the glacial snows and jagged rocks of the Adamello sector, the other on the flat, watery plain at Capo Sile.

COMMANDER RIZZO'S ASTONISHING FEAT IN THE ADRIATIC.

Yet another cheering and almost incredible success, was accomplished, in the Adriatic, on the night of June 8-9, by Commander Rizzo when he and a companion, cruising in motor

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boats, attacked two large Austrian battleships escorted by a group of destroyers. Rizzo's two torpedoes took effect on the ship he attacked, and a depth-charge dropped in the path of a pursuing destroyer sank that as well. The second battleship was damaged but not sunk. The two bold sailors escaped unharmed.

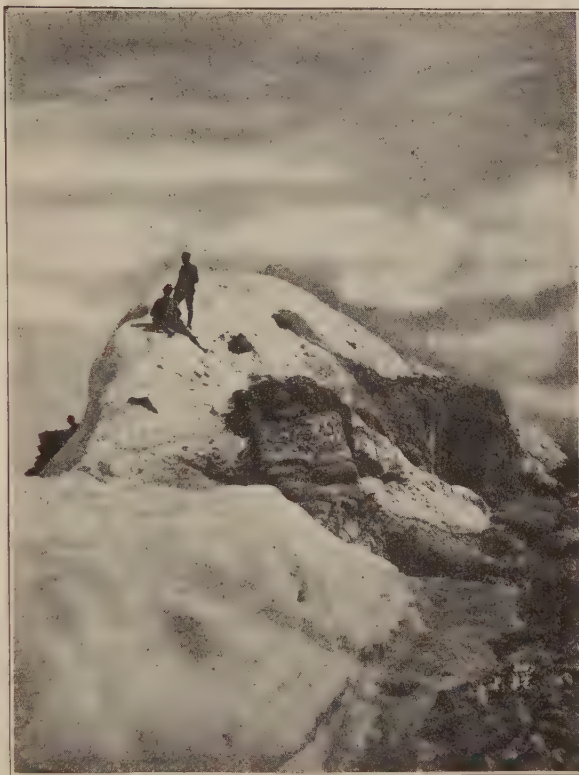
The expected Austrian offensive, which did not begin until the middle of June, had been ordered by the German Command to draw off Italian units and perhaps others from the French front. Moreover, it was calculated to relieve the increasing desperation of the Austro-Hungarian situation, where political dissension, starvation, mutinies and desertions endangered discipline. This was to be a "hunger offensive." The food and plunder of the Lombard plain were set before the soldiers as a reward for victory. Relying upon the "infiltration" tactics that had compassed the fall of Caporetto, and underrating the fighting strength of Italy, the enemy counted upon breaking through at some weak spot in a short time.

GENERAL DIAZ PROVES HIMSELF AN OFFICER OF ABILITY.

But General Diaz, made wary by experience and instructed by General Foch, was ready for the German plan of attack, his line arranged to receive the blow with as little harm as possible and to deliver immediate counter-attacks. Besides, all officers, now, were alert for signs of panic and were prepared to meet it. One explanation of the operations as they eventually worked out is that General Diaz used his reserves with rare skill, while the Austrians failed in the manipulation of the large supply of reserves at their command. They were letter-perfect, as it were, in the details of the German tactics which had been effective at the Somme, March 21, and which they were to imitate, but they had not grasped

the principle and lacked the spirit and initiative to use their instructions to best advantage.

The disposition of the forces on the Italian front was as follows:—west of the Trentino the Seventh Army under Tassone, with the Sixth Army under Montuori at their right; east of the



ON THE ADAMELLO HEIGHTS

In April 1916, the Alpini won the glacial heights of Adamello, securing range over Val Giudicaria and the Trentino. Near by the feint attack was made by Austria in June 1918.

Trentino salient, and across the Asiago plateau, the First Army, with Pecori-Giraldo, including the French 12th Corps and the British 14th Corps under Lord Cavan (the latter, transferred from the Montello in March); in the Grappa section, the Fourth Army, whose commander was Giardino, succeeding de Robilant; on the Upper Piave and the Montello, a new Second Army, under Pennella; and along the river to the sea, the Duke of Aosta's Third Army; while the Fifth Army, under the command of Morone, was held in reserve.

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THE AUSTRIAN PLAN EXPECTED TO YIELD QUICK RETURN.

Of the enemy's armies, those on the Piave line, under the direction of General Boroevic, included some of the best Hungarian regiments and Slav troops. On the northern line, Conrad von Hötzendorff held general command over troops that were chiefly German-speaking. The plans of the offensive were not unknown to General Diaz, for secrecy was impossible where desertions were so continuous as among the Austro-Hungarian forces. While Verona and Venice were ultimate objectives, Bassano and Treviso were to be reached at one step by means of thrusts driven in upon the Asiago Plateau, the Montello heights, and the Piave front between the Montello and the sea, especially along the line of the railway running from Udine to Vicenza. Indeed, allotments of quarters in the houses of Treviso had already been made; and upon prisoners taken during the battles, postcard maps were found which bore the following timetable marked upon the route prescribed:—"June 15, halt at Treviso. June 16, occupation of Venice."

A preliminary attack, on June 13, around the Tonale Pass may have been intended as a diversion; but the region is so little suited for an offensive of any extent that the blow, although successful at first, caused no real concern and was of practically no consequence.

THE EXPECTED AUSTRIAN ATTACK IS FINALLY DELIVERED.

At the moment chosen for the opening bombardment, three o'clock on the morning of June 15, the artillery preparation began; but, for almost three hours previous, Italian batteries had already been at work on both sides of the Brenta River. By thus anticipating the attack, they succeeded in interrupting the Austrian formation for the advance in that section. The Austrian guns, however, spoke all the way from Canove (west of Asiago) to the mouth of the Piave, heralding the inception of two separate and simultaneous battles—one in the mountains, one on the river front. It was a serious diffi-

culty of the Austrian position that tactical communication between the two sectors could not readily be compassed. Had the offensive been successfully co-ordinated in this respect, the Italians would have been driven from the hills and their whole eastern line enveloped. As it was, their first positions along the entire front were lost in the early hours of fighting; and the remainder of the battle (or, rather, battles) consisted of individual attacks and counter-attacks in the area between the first and second lines of defense, contesting the possession of that territory.

General von Hötzendorff's attack, which covered a front of somewhat less than twenty miles, from Monte Grappa westward across the Brenta River and the Asiago Plateau, was pushed most heavily on the west side of the river. His gains, however, even there were not extended beyond those of the first day. The lightly-held Italian advance line from Monte di Val Bella to Col del Rosso yielded at first, but counter-attacks began at midday, and by the third day of the conflict almost every point had been re-occupied. On the sentinel heights across the Frenzela valley, meanwhile, the Alpini, in white overalls, amid snow tossed and churned by ceaseless bombardment, held steadfastly. Farther west, near Asiago, sudden pressure imperiled one of the British positions for a time, but a quick transfer of reserves from the Italian and British corps on its flanks, checked the drive in that section. The Austrians then found themselves in an awkward pocket from which they eventually retired in disorder under furious counter-attack by the British.

THE ATTACK IN THE WEST BREAKS DOWN AFTER THREE DAYS.

While the First Army—Italian, British and French contingents—was thus valiantly pressing back the flood of invasion, the Fourth Army was sturdily meeting it in the Monte Grappa section east of the Brenta. There, too, some immediate gains were made by the enemy, so that he was able to look down into the Brenta Valley; but excellent use of reserves and prompt

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counter-attacks quickly reversed the situation and pushed back the foe upon his old lines. The Austrian drive in the mountains had proved a failure almost before the end of the first day. After three days it was abandoned. The offensive had been turned back when it had barely broken over the border.

On the Montello and down the Piave where the front extended about twenty-five miles, the struggle was more desperate and lasted longer, although its outcome was no more fortunate for the armies of invasion—in this case, the army of the Archduke Joseph and the old army of the Isonzo with General Wurm, both under the supreme command of Boroëvic. Muffling the Italians on the right bank of the river with smoke and gas and tear-shells, the Austro-Hungarian troops crossed in boats and on rafts, drew over pontoons, established bridgeheads and built bridges at various places, before they could be checked. At Nervesa, leading to the Montello; at Fagare where the Treviso-Udine railway crosses; and at San Dona, which stands at the head of the Delta, were the principal crossings. South of San Dona the enemy had held the Delta since November, and now on nearly a nine-mile front they went over the old Piave stream, the Sile, into the lagoon district guarding Venice. At the other end of the line, the Archduke Joseph was well up on the Montello, the first day, June 15. On the seventeenth he extended his foothold. "Infiltration" worked well along the Piave, and Boroëvic hoped by pressing upon both flanks of General Diaz's force to turn them.

THE ITALIAN RESERVES SAVE THE DAY IN THE EAST.

But again the Italian reserves were thrown in speedily and with skill. They

came from the mountains, across the plain, in Fiat lorries and other conveyances. Bersaglieri *ciclisti* hurried here or there to the spots that were most threatened. Italian guns broke down the bridges over which great Austrian guns were to have moved, so



THE DUKE AND DUCHESS OF AOSTA

The Duke of Aosta, cousin of the King, commanded the Third Army, whose successes are a tribute to his leadership. The Duchess won great love and admiration as an organizer and head of war nursing. She, too, proved a born leader, both wise and tireless.

International Film

that the offensive had to go on without the support of heavy artillery. Then came the floods swelling the Piave floating down logs from the upper reaches, breaking bridges from their foundations, and making communication between the shores almost impossible, so that hydroplanes were used

for conveying food to the hungry enemy troops on the west bank. The Italian Second and Third Armies, beginning to counter-attack, pressed the Archduke's army to the edge of the Montello and General Wurm's men to the very brink of the stream at Zenson and other points. On the twenty-first, the Austrian left flank was turned. In the Delta the Austrian positions were now submerged, offering new channels for Italian naval floats.

On the night of June 22-23 a definite counter-offensive was launched, and that same night the enemy retreat across the river began. The following day, General Diaz issued a communiqué announcing: "From Montello to the sea the enemy, defeated and pursued by our brave troops, is crossing the Piave in disorder." The withdrawal, however, was more orderly than might have been anticipated, for the flood subsided as suddenly as it had risen and the retreat was skilfully directed. The plight of the troops waiting to cross was harrowing enough, "gathered," as a witness writes, "in dismal groups on the west bank seeking a ferry—like the souls described by Dante on the banks of the Acheron appealing to Charon for passage." There they were harassed by cavalry, by machine-gun fire and by bombardments from the air, where the Allied aviation squadrons included the pioneer American corps.

On July 6, the last of the enemy had left the right bank of the Piave, while in the mountains not only had the forfeited positions been recovered but raids had been made into Austrian territory. The Delta, too, was at last cleared, and Venice had been freed from danger.

WHAT THE OFFENSIVE HAD COST THE DUAL EMPIRE.

For the Central Powers the offensive had been overwhelmingly costly in men, material and morale. The Austro-Hungarian losses are estimated to have been between 150,000 and 200,000, while the Italians lost about 90,000. More than 20,000 prisoners and many guns had been given up, and the hoped-for food supplies had not been won.

Yet at the outset of the battles, seventy Austro-Hungarian divisions had been available (fifty-nine already at the front and eleven more on the way); and when the attack had broken down, there were still twenty-five divisions in reserve that had not been used. Nor had ample equipment been wanting. In spite of these assets, the offensive power of the Austrian ally had received its final blow. Henceforth, Germany could look for no help from that quarter.

Cool facts upon a printed page may fail to convey their full import. Some pages should glow with letters of flame. Such a page for Italy is that which tells of her brave recovery and her significant triumph. Not to Italy alone, but to the overstrained spirit of the whole Allied world, in the summer of 1918, the news of that victorious defense brought high relief and hope,—voiced in the message sent to Signor Orlando by Mr. Lloyd George for the British War Cabinet. "This great success," he said, "has been a deep source of encouragement to the Allies. Coming as it has at the most fateful hour of the whole war, it is a good augury that the alliance of free nations will ere long free the world once for all from the military domination which has threatened it so long."

THE ITALIANS NOW PREPARE TO TAKE THE OFFENSIVE.

The Italian counter-offensive had not been fully effective because it coincided with the enemy's retreat across the Piave. The river, which had been a defense, then became a barrier. Through the remainder of the summer and the early fall, the Austro-Italian front was inactive, waiting for the time to be ripe for a decisive move on this, the right flank of Foch's long line. Only, certain strategic positions, chiefly in the mountains, were added to the gains already secured. When, in October, the call came, General Diaz revealed to the army commanders the plans for the offensive about to begin. The readjustments in army positions, made by way of preparation, are plainly indicated on the accompanying map. It will be noted that Lord Cavan had

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been asked to command the Tenth Army, which included two British divisions; and that the French general, Graziani, was at the head of the Twelfth Army, in which one French division had its place. In all, the armies of General Diaz numbered fifty-one Italian divisions, three British, two French, and one Czecho-Slovak,

services, and showed a stamina under enormous handicaps at least as great as Germany's own. Marvelous is the power of a military machine and a long tradition of discipline. It was the army which had always been the one true force of unity in the Empire." Again, as in 1848, the fate of that army hung upon the outcome of a battle; for, "in



ARMY POSITIONS AND BATTLE LINES IN THE LAST OFFENSIVE

The 4th Army, under Giardino, opened the attack in the Monte Grappa sector on October 24. The 10th Army, under Lord Cavan, the 12th Army, under Graziani, and the 8th Army, under Cavaglia, advanced across the Piave on October 27. The 3rd Army, under the Duke of Aosta, entered the battle on October 30. In the Trentino was the 6th Army, with the 1st and the 7th (the latter, around the Tonale Pass). By November 4 they were over the watershed as far as Trent, while the eastern battle line pushed beyond the Tagliamento.

with one American regiment added during the battle.

The enemy strength amounted to between sixty and seventy divisions, still well-organized in spite of the depression resulting from the defeat in June and the disintegrating forces under which the Hapsburg empire was crumbling. By October 24, 1918, German Austria, Hungary and the Slav states north and south had recognized that their false bond of government could no longer exist. Only in the army were they represented as a unit. In the words of Mr. John Buchan, "Out of a museum of antagonistic races Austria had created an army which was of first-rate quality in many of its

time of revolution the winning or losing of battles counts not less but more than in times of stable government."

WHAT THE ITALIAN ATTACK WAS PLANNED TO ACCOMPLISH.

The general plan, briefly stated, was; a strong holding action between the Brenta and the Piave (on the Grappa massif) by the Fourth Army, aided by the Seventh, First and Sixth Armies enveloping the Trentino, and a sudden break through the enemy lines on the middle Piave by the Twelfth, Eighth and Tenth Armies. Upon General Cavaglia, commander of the Eighth Army, rested the responsibility of co-ordinating the movements of the three. This would drive a wedge between the

VI and V Austrian armies, and cut off the communications between their forces in the mountains and those in the plains. Beginning on the anniversary of Caporetto, the offensive was carried through with dash and decision, twelve days sufficing for the complete undoing of the enemy on the Piave and in the Trentino. Although at first storms had threatened to impede the advance, the weather itself turning ally made for smoothness and rapidity of action.

In the Piave some islands were still occupied by Austrian garrisons. At the suggestion of Lieutenant-General Sir J. M. Babington, the largest of these islands, Grave di Papadopoli, was seized by a preliminary attack starting on the night of September 23-24, and completed two nights later. In order not to inform the enemy that the distribution of armies on the front had been changed, the British troops who executed this movement wore Italian uniforms and used no British guns. With the valuable aid of *pontieri* from the Italian *genio*, the men were carried across the channels between the mainland and the islands in flat-bottomed boats.

Upon the Monte Grappa front bombardment, opening October 24, was followed by a forward drive by Italians, British and French, who met stern resistance. The struggle was so furious that some of the heights were taken and retaken eight times, and it was nearly a week before the line was forced to retire to any great extent.

THE AUSTRIANS ON THE PIAVE FORCED TO FLEE IN DISORDER.

The main attack on the Piave was launched on the twenty-sixth, after a preparation in which the British guns joined. Lord Cavan's infantry crossing from Grave di Papadopoli suffered some losses from drowning. But bridgeheads were quickly established by his Tenth Army and General Cavaglia's Eighth, while the Twelfth Army moved up the Piave gorge toward Feltre. A gap of several miles between the British and Italian bridgeheads on the east bank was caused by difficulties in bridging along the right

flank of the Eighth Army. Time was saved by transferring one corps of that army to Lord Cavan's command and taking it across the British bridges. When these broke down under the strain before all had crossed, the British used the Italian bridges which had been finished in the meantime. Undaunted by the accident which had held back part of his men, General Basso, whose 18th Corps had been placed under Lord Cavan, swept forward with the British and cleared the right flank of the Italian Eighth Army when their crossing was made at Nervesa. Then his corps was returned to General Cavaglia.

On October 29, the Tenth Army had reached the Monticano River and the Eighth was approaching Vittorio. The enemy had begun to retreat rapidly. The next day, Feltre was under fire by the Twelfth Army, Vittorio had been captured by the Eighth, and the Livenza River had been reached by the Tenth. In the mountain region, that day, the Sixth Army recovered Asiago, and on the lower Piave, the Third Army entered the battle, crossing the river all the way from Lord Cavan's right to the sea. "From this moment the retreat became a rout," announced the British Commander in his despatch. Discipline broke down except among the best German-Austrian units. Czech and Polish battalions were giving themselves up wholesale; and there was a rush for escape over the Tagliamento or through mountain passes.

BROKEN AND DISPIRITED THE AUSTRIANS ASK FOR PEACE.

The first days of November were marked by swift progress on every side. The Italian Cavalry were making their way eastward far in advance of the infantry. The Tenth Army, including now the U. S. 332nd Regiment, were across the Tagliamento. The Eighth Army was marching upon Belluno. A British division in the Fourth Army on the Asiago plateau had the satisfaction of feeling that they were the first British troops bivouacking on hostile soil. The Sixth Army had reached the edges of Trent.



BOYS FROM AMERICA IN THE HOME LAND OF COLUMBUS

Transferred from France, July 1918, the 332nd United States Regiment was met at Genoa by Red Cross workers, whose soup kitchens are here seen. These troops, after brief intensive training, were encamped near Treviso, where they were displayed on daily hikes in varying uniform and equipment before both Italians and Austrians.



THE 332ND UNITED STATES REGIMENT MARCHING INTO CAMP BEHIND THE LINES

After having served as tonic for the morale of the Italians and accomplished the discouragement of the Austrians, by a continuous masquerade, creating an illusion of great numbers, the regiment was added to Lord Cavan's army on October 29, and fought in the battle at the Tagliamento on November 4, winning the praise of Lord Cavan and General Diaz. When they left Italy in March 1919, a farewell manifesto was circulated in Genoa.

Central News Service

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Before October ended, negotiations had been opened leading toward surrender and the arrangement of an armistice. When, on the night of November 2, this news reached the soldiers at the front, a long trail of sound was flung out upon the air—a sound of singing and cheering. Mr.

sults of enemy occupation and signs of enemy demoralization were everywhere apparent. Hungry remnants of the hostile army gave themselves up, evidently relieved at the prospect of being cared for. Hosts of Italian prisoners, freed by revolution from harsh captivity in the foreign lands where one-fifth of their number had fallen prey to disease, abuse or starvation, were painfully working homeward. Sick and wounded of both parties lay in hospitals, untended by any but the compassionate Italian women who discovered their need. Stores of guns and ammunition were left where they had stood before the offensive started. Among the almost starving populace there was lively rejoicing over the flight of the *brutte bestie* who had robbed them of their corn, their cattle and their movable goods and subjected them to ill-treatment. In return for these outrages, some Austrian prisoners suffered insult but were not in any case injured. The surrender left in the hands of the victors more than 300,000 prisoners and over 5,000 guns.

There is not space for more than bare mention of some of the dramatic details of the last days of Italy's warfare—the destruction in Pola harbor of the battleship, *Viribus Unitis*, which had borne the Archduke Francis Ferdinand to Dalmatia in June, 1914; and the occupation of Trieste by Bersaglieri. From Trent to Trieste the borders had been made safe—the mountain gateways and the northern reaches of the Adriatic. And the empire of the old oppressors had become a memory.

SOME OF THE THINGS WHICH ITALY ACCOMPLISHED.

A review of Italy's contribution to the war stirs the depths of wonder and admiration. Out of her population, which included fewer than 9,000,000 male adults able-bodied and economi-



VITTORIO EMANUELE III

Although he reigns in the city of the old Roman emperors, the King is characterized by quiet simplicity of manner, as far as possible removed from spectacular pomp. N. Y. Times

Trevelyan, of the British Red Cross in Italy, in recalling that night, says: "I shall never forget the distant and continuous noise of a whole army scattered over the plain, shouting all night in its joy under the glistening winter stars because their warfare was accomplished." Hostilities actually came to an end on November 4, when the armistice became effective.

THE JOY OF THE RESIDENTS OF THE OCCUPIED TERRITORY.

As the rivers were crossed in the pursuit of the flying foe, who destroyed bridges wherever it was possible, re-

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cally productive, 5,500,000 were enrolled in the armies. Fighting on their own long, formidable border and elsewhere, 460,000 lost their lives (a toll as large, in proportion to the population, as that of the British); 947,000 were wounded; and it has been estimated that over a half-million have been totally incapacitated.

On the whole Italy, in her war-

lent a hand to one another; and, when the farmer-soldiers were not absolutely needed at the front, they were allowed "harvest furloughs" and "seeding furloughs."

WOMEN TAKE THE PLACE OF MEN IN MANY OCCUPATIONS.

The employment of women in mills and factories was contrary to the traditions and feelings of the Italians.



ITALY'S YOUNG CROWN PRINCE

The royal family of Italy, shunning display and pretentious aloofness, have endeared themselves to their people. Queen Elena was a Montenegrin princess. She and the King never fail to hasten with relief to a scene of disaster in their land. There are five royal children—four daughters and one son, Umberto, the Heir Apparent. Here the prince is shown helping to make a collection for the Red Cross. Ruschin

time adjustments, showed a considerable "power of economic resistance." The small force of workers left at home performed miracles of energy in producing food, machinery, and munitions. Of the peasants cultivating the land—the women, the aged and the young—all had to work harder than usual. The separation allowance from the Government at the outset was seventy centesimi (about 14 cents) a day for the wife, seventy for the father and an average of thirty-five for each child. All the wheat and wine that they could raise was bought by the Government. Neighboring families

Heavy work in the fields they were accustomed to, but their segregation for the labor of manufacture was not considered right. Nor was it easy for the Italian public to sanction the employment of their women as drivers or conductors on public vehicles. Yet in the new régime imposed by war, the women of Italy took their places wherever they were needed. Beside them, older men stepped into the places of those who had gone to join their regiments. Training schools were established to give instructions in the use of machinery and mechanical tools. Many who would have counted among

the emigrants of normal years stayed at home to enter the army or help produce munitions. The cost of unskilled labor had very soon doubled at least. The goods produced by the large establishments were supplemented by contributions from individual craftsmen, who put their tools and their skill to work to add their "bit towards helping *la patria* in the hour of its necessity."

Italy, as her allies had done, entered the combat with altogether insufficient equipment of guns and other war supplies. Her position in the Triple Alliance had prevented secure armament in time of peace, and her lack of coal and iron was a serious obstacle in the way of rapid production. Nevertheless, she had a great asset in the Ansaldo works near Genoa—a famous ship-building and armament plant, with extensive steel works and foundries. Their output included all sorts of guns, petrol engines, motors, destroyers, torpedo boats and super-dreadnoughts. In the ten months of Italy's neutrality, the Ansaldo firm had greatly extended their works and had built, without order, 1200 guns, which were ready when the government had need of them. Again, after the Caporetto loss, 2,000 guns were produced unsolicited.

SOME OF THE INDUSTRIAL AND FINANCIAL EFFORT EXPENDED.

We have seen how, in the transport of troops, the railways were supplemented by motor vehicles of all sorts, most of which were built by the Fiat Company of Turin. At the order of the Army Transport Department, this "finest automobile factory in the world" had completed and delivered, within a week, not barely the 545 vehicles asked for, but 546. Through the whole war Fiat cars—lorries, ambulances, vehicles for every use—were busy, carrying back and forth loads of munitions, supplies or human beings. For strength they were unsurpassed, and only the Ford, because of its lighter weight, could go farther over the rough ways on the battle-front. And side by side with the Fiat automobiles we must think of the Caproni aeroplanes that circled over cities and

harbors or soared away across plains and mountains, bearing messages, delivering bombs, making reconnaissances, fixing photographic records, helping incalculably the brains and hands of the men in offices and behind guns.

Financially the country gave to the utmost of her means, each one of the war loans yielding returns beyond what might have been expected. In the last one, after the exhausting experiences of October, 1917, a sum of about \$1,300,000,000 was raised. With sturdy endurance and self-sacrifice the civilian population gave their support.

THE WONDERFUL WORK OF THE ITALIAN ENGINEERS.

Of the navy, its unrelaxing vigilance and bold exploits; of the excellent air-service and its work of protection and enterprise; of the gallant fighting men meeting untold hardship and danger on mountains or arid rocky plains or in flat marshy stretches; of the engineers and their brilliant achievements, piercing shafts and pinnacles of rock high in air to make windows for the guns, rapidly constructing bridges and railroads, building smooth winding roads on impossible slopes, harnessing waterfalls and rushing streams for electric power, laying miles of water-pipe with incredible speed, bridging space with threads of wire that meant life and safety and contact with the world for men in lofty, isolated posts—of these we have spoken at length. But the story grows in splendor while we contemplate it.

Relief work on the fighting lines and at home was carried on with spirit and skill. The Army Medical Service developed excellent base hospitals and pushed field hospitals and dressing-stations far to the front. Although prejudice—even a regulation of the authorities—had to be overcome to accomplish it, Italian women served faithfully as nurses in those hospitals. The Duchess of Aosta, leading, was followed by many other ladies of the nobility—"true exemplars of democracy" in their unflagging efforts. When, with the reverse at Caporetto the country had all at once "to salvage an army, turn back an invasion" and

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rescue a "dislodged population," the emergency was faced with calmness and decision. The Ministry of the Interior, aided by Citizens' Committees (already efficiently functioning to care for the soldiers' families and other poor), by the American Red Cross, and other indefatigable helpers Italian, British and American, transplanted, clothed and fed the hosts of refugees (*profughi*), an enormous undertaking.

Colasenti's trucks would be departing from one side of a town with their precious burdens just as the Austrians were entering from the other side."

The removal of the world's two most famous equestrian statues—that of Gattamelata from Padua and that of Colleoni from Venice—proved the most difficult task. The transfer of the Gattamelata took four and a half days. As for the Colleoni, after



AUSTRIAN SNOW RUNNERS

Equipped with skis, poles and packs, in addition to their guns, the members of this Austrian patrol are protected by their white garments which, against the snowy background, make them invisible from the distance. Down the long slopes they can glide swiftly and smoothly without great danger of being discovered by an enemy.

HOW THE ART TREASURES WERE RESCUED AND PRESERVED.

To mention Italy is to think of art. It was one of the nation's responsibilities to protect its treasures, loved by all the civilized world, and to this they bent organized efforts. At the time of the invasion, trucks, timber and men were placed at the disposal of Arduino Colasenti who was to spare no pains in keeping the museums, churches and private collections from yielding plunder to the foe. The citizens of the endangered towns were to help by having their treasures wrapped for transportation. "It often happened that

rider and saddle had been lifted from the horse's back, it was discovered that the weight of the bronze was greater than had been estimated. Neither cranes nor scaffolds were strong enough. "Finally after much delay the horse was raised without incident, tied on a movable platform and lowered gradually on an inclined plane, almost to the end of the square, from which point it was raised again, also along an inclined plane, to the deck of a barge. All this was done by hand. For the last effort the number of men engaged was not sufficient. The man in charge of the operation



ONE OF THE STRANGE SIGHTS RESULTING FROM A STATE OF WAR

In "the thick cluster of treasures that makes up Venice," one of the foremost gems is this equestrian statue of Bartolommeo Colleoni (a Venetian soldier of fortune of the fifteenth century), the finest achievement of the sculptor Verrochio. Protected, in the first days of danger, by a "titantic armored sentry-box", the statue was later lowered from its pedestal, and rider and horse were conveyed separately to Rome for safe-keeping.

then turned to the crowd which was watching proceedings and shouted: 'All to the ropes.' It was an unforgettable sight. Even the children grabbed the ropes and pulled with all their force." This incident may be regarded as symbolic of Italy's reac-

tion to the shock of invasion. Dropping everything else for the time, the people sprang "to the ropes." Army, navy, marines, medical units, civilians, leaped forward to the rescue at the critical hour, and the crisis was turned.

L. MARION LOCKHART.



LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR ARTHUR W. CURRIE
Commander of the Canadian Corps from June 9, 1917



Lieut.-General E. A. H. Alderson with Staff

CHAPTER LXXI

The Canadian as a Soldier

AN ESTIMATE OF CANADIAN ACHIEVEMENT ON THE BATTLE FIELD BY THEIR LEADER

BY LIEUTENANT-GENERAL SIR ARTHUR W. CURRIE

Commanding Canadian Corps

CANADA is not and never has been a warlike nation, yet nearly half a million Canadians volunteered to cross the seas to battle with the power of a military autocracy, perhaps the most formidable and most efficiently organized in the history of the world. In the hour of trial Canadians realized their responsibility as never before.

Into the mighty struggle Canada threw herself heart and soul; her citizen soldiers crossed the ocean to fight the battle on a foreign soil, for it mattered not where the issue was decided when the issue was so clear. Behind that living bulwark the men and women of Canada worked with ceaseless energy and devotion to provide the necessities of war—food-stuffs, munitions, clothing, comforts—and prayed that victory would reward their countrymen's efforts and that loved ones would survive. Thus were the full resources of Canada organized and employed. They played a part not yet fully appreciated or realized by our own people in achieving the final victory. So this young nation demonstrated that the old spirit is still a living principle and that all creeds and parties can still whole-heartedly unite to defend the commonwealth by concentrating on the common task.

WHO AND WHAT ARE THE CANADIAN PEOPLE?

The ancestry of the Canadian is mixed as regards nationality, although almost entirely English, Scotch, French and Irish, but as regards characteristics the one great race of men, the men who are jealous for their liberties, who seek their own fortunes, who are proud, self dependent and unafraid, yet law-abiding, God-fearing and orderly, are the men who have peopled Canada.

Among the 90,000 souls in Canada when the British colonies to the South declared their independence in 1776 there were Frenchmen, French-Canadians, Englishmen, Scotsmen, Irishmen, Welshmen, Channel Islanders, Acadians, Newfoundlanders and loyal men from the American Colonies, the forerunners of the United Empire Loyalists, who came in such numbers during and after the American Revolution. These are the racial elements from which Canadians spring and then they were first united in the defense of their common country. They again united to assist the British troops in repelling the invasion of 1812; they combined to work out the Confederation of the Dominion of Canada in 1867; and side by side in 1914 again they stood in defense of the Empire.

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THE CHARACTER OF THE IMMIGRATION DURING THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

In 1814, Canada's population numbered less than half a million; since then it has been increased twenty fold. Whence have these people come? The natural increase has been large. During the first half of the nineteenth century the settlers most worthy of note in point of numbers and in the share they took in developing the country were the Scottish Highlanders and discharged soldiers from the British regiments, including many who saw service in North America before 1871, when Canada assumed her own protection. Since then the immigration has increased enormously, the greater part furnished directly by the British Isles but with the development of railways and consequent opening up of the Western prairies a great tide of prosperous farmers has flowed in also from the United States, while all countries of Europe have contributed in some degree to what is now the Canadian people.

We see then that the country is unique in having been peopled from good stocks and good representatives of these stocks. In the early days the hardships of pioneer life eliminated the weaklings and in later years strict immigration laws have prevented the dumping of undesirables, while throughout the rigors of our climate have made it imperative for a man either to work, starve or leave the country.

THE EFFECT OF PIONEER LIFE UPON CANADIAN CHARACTER.

Most Canadians today are themselves pioneers or are the immediate descendants of pioneers. Most of them have gained for themselves, or have inherited those indelible signs with which Nature graces the bodies and souls of those who have pitted their will, their strength and their determination against her elemental forces and have earned for themselves a portion of her riches.

The life of a Canadian pioneer, be he a woodsman, a prospector, a hunter, or a settler upon the land, calls forth and tests brains, mettle and brawn. If the rewards are as a rule generous,

the difficulties to be overcome are many and none but the brave, the patient and the strong can survive them. The severities of the community either correct or reject the lazy. Thus we see in operation through various agencies and in their moral and physical aspects, the laws of selection. The operations of these natural laws have already resulted in the creation, or the segregation of a race of men approximating to a particular type with distinct moral, physical and intellectual characteristics. The virile strength of the typical Canadian is depicted in his erect carriage, his well-knit frame, his strong clean-cut limbs, his keen and steady eyes, while behind the calm gravity of his mien lies a tenacious and indomitable will.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CANADIAN SOLDIER ILLUSTRATED.

In that mental and bodily vigor we find too the secret of the superhuman efforts put forth by the men of the Canadian Corps in the momentous epoch of the last hundred days of the war, when they showed that civilian soldiers when discreetly disciplined, carefully trained, vigorously led and above all when imbued with a resolute and unflinching determination to make their cause triumphant, could compete with and vanquish the product of a military autocracy. Wide awake and full of intelligent initiative, one learned of the Canadian engaging early in daring night patrols, models of hunting craft. To them there was no No-man's Land. What is usually called such was ours and regarded merely as an outpost of our intrenched position. Later they initiated the daring cutting-out raids, which were soon to become a feature of trench warfare. Their thirst for accurate information led to the high development of our intelligence service and their greed for maps, for models, for aeroplane photographs of the front was insatiable and they made good use of all this information. One of our divisions during a three months' tour in a section where the line was stationary, thoroughly exhausted two German Divisions solely by persistent raiding and harassing and so lowered the morale

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of another that it had to be withdrawn to rest and refit while the Canadians after coming out of the line proceeded to carry out the intensive training in the principles of open warfare for a couple of weeks and then went into the battle of Amiens more efficient than ever.

The moral effect of this policy upon our men was apparent in the feeling of

can be answered disappear again into the darkness."

RAISING THE FIRST CANADIAN CONTINGENT AN EASY MATTER.

When in the first days of August, 1914, it became evident that Great Britain would have to go to war, Canada offered to raise 20,000 men for service overseas. This offer was at once accepted by the Motherland and



TRAINING BEHIND THE LINES

Soldiers being instructed in "sniping." Although the Great War, for the most part, was a war of machinery and organized mass work, the art of the sharpshooter was highly developed, largely practiced. Through him it was possible to destroy the valuable "knots" and "links" in the machinery—officers, liaison troops, reconnaissance parties, machine-gun nests, field battery crews.

superiority over the enemy that it engendered and not only that but the corresponding loss of morale on the part of the enemy gave very real results when we took the offensive and open warfare was resumed. The captured letter of a German soldier, evidently a man of some experience, to his nephew, who had recently been called to the colors, here gives an interesting sidelight:

"I hope that the Canadians are not in the trenches opposite your front, for they on the darkest night jump suddenly into our trenches, causing great consternation and before cries for help

such was the response to the call that in less than a month there were 40,000 volunteers at the disposal of the Government. Valcartier Camp, some sixteen miles west of Quebec, was completed in a fortnight with railway sidings, rifle ranges, water supply and telephone system and there by the 11th of September 30,000 troops were under canvas and undergoing training for the great adventure.

As had been anticipated, both officers and men had much to learn but the admirable zeal and ambition of all ranks made the most arduous task easy and the atmosphere of the army

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with its discipline and routine at first so galling and tiresome to most volunteer soldiers was accepted and endured as part of the game. Little was then known of actual fighting conditions in France, which could only be guessed at from short press cables of doubtful accuracy but it was clear that the first requisite for an efficient force was still the man who could shoot straight under any circumstances and that an organization must be built

pital units. The crossing occupied nearly two weeks, but guarded by six British cruisers, the Canadian Armada steamed safe and unmolested into Plymouth Sound.

THE FIRST DIVISION GOES TO FRANCE FROM SALISBURY PLAIN.

The First Canadian Division trained on Salisbury Plain, and crossed to France in February, 1915, after four dismal months spent in the mud, cold and rain of an English winter. This



A GUARD AT THE ROYAL SALUTE

His Majesty King George V with Lieutenant-General Hon. Sir Julian Byng.

©Canada, 1919

up to train him and to keep him fit and fighting.

Horses, stores, clothing and equipment were collected and distributed in a surprisingly short time, transports were secured and the First Contingent 33,000 strong embarked at Québec and sailed from Gaspé Bay on October 3, 1914. This was the largest body of soldiers that had ever crossed the Atlantic at one time; it comprised one infantry division of 20,000 men, complete in artillery, infantry, engineers and all services; in addition there was one cavalry brigade, one heavy battery, two independent infantry battalions—(The Newfoundland Regiment and the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry) and several unattached hos-

experience did much to develop not only the military value of Canadians but also that spirit of endurance, of willingness and of determination to see the matter to a finish which was to carry them gloriously through the days to come.

The Port of St. Nazaire, far removed from the submarine-infested Channel, was the landing place of the First Canadian Division. At that time few facilities existed for the rapid handling of large bodies of troops; the French civilian stevedores on this occasion, not showing sufficient speed and alacrity in the work of unloading, were relieved of their work by the troops, who, with picked men running the winches and manning the ropes, emp-

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tied the transports in record time. Then followed an interminable railway journey to near Hazebrouck where the Division was billeted while detachments went forward from all units to train with the British forces who then held the line from Ypres to Bethune.

The Princess Patricia's Canadian

fitted and equipped for service overseas. The reinforcement depots left in England in February, 1914, formed the nucleus of the larger schools and training depots which were later required to train further and equip fully the men who poured across in a steady stream to keep the forces in the field up to



ACTIVITIES IN A CAMP COOK HOUSE

The cook house is one of the most important parts of the soldier's life. The impression of the interior of the house of the 56th Canadian Infantry Battalion at Witley Camp, Surrey, was painted by Anna Airy, R. O. I. In France there was no such luxury as this building offered for the preparation of food.

© Canadian War Records.

Light Infantry, a battalion composed almost entirely of ex-soldiers, was the first body of Canadians to fight in France; this unit, as well as one of the Canadian Field Hospitals, had already served with distinction in December, 1914.

HOW THE LATER DIVISIONS WERE TRAINED AND ORGANIZED.

Soon after the first Contingent had sailed for England other camps were established in Canada where recruits received their preliminary drill and instruction and were as far as possible

fighting strength. The Third Canadian Division was formed in France but the Second and Fourth both trained in camps in England before crossing the Channel, and each in turn sent detachments into the trenches with experienced troops before taking its turn in the line. As time went on, it was found expedient to have reinforcements more readily available to replace casualties and this led to the establishment of the Canadian Corps Reinforcement Depot in France which, in conjunction with the Corps and Divisional Schools,

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furnished men as required and gave them additional training besides holding advanced courses of instructions for those sent back from the line during quiet periods.

It did not take long for the Canadian to adapt himself to military life, as practically all the original officers had served in the militia before the war and had attended the annual training camps, as had many of the men, while a considerable number of these had served either in the British Regular Army or Territorials. Even the city-bred had as a rule some knowledge of the woods and of life out of doors and it was remarkable how one and all patiently endured hardships which could not be avoided but were always intolerant of unnecessary discomfort and indefatigable in devising all sorts of methods to ameliorate conditions. Inquisitiveness was another useful characteristic—wanting to know the reasons why—and the explanation frequently furnished food for thought. Civil experience turned to military uses often resulted in the discovery of a better way; similarly new schemes were evolved and new organizations put into effect to cope with new conditions of warfare as they arose. In this way when it was found that we had not a sufficient number of machine guns the number was increased with a corresponding increase in personnel; when it was found that the infantry could not construct and man trenches simultaneously without impairing their efficiency the strength of the Engineers was increased; when it was found that the signal service was inadequate more men were trained and drafted into that branch and in each case an establishment and system of command was adopted capable of employing the force available to the very best advantage.

THE ATTITUDE OF THE CANADIAN TOWARD MILITARY DISCIPLINE.

An unknown writer, evidently striving after a catch phrase or caustic epigram, once said that the Canadian troops carried their officers as mascots. This illusion, if it ever really existed to any extent, was soon dispelled by the

fighting record early established by the First Contingent and steadily augmented by all the divisions of the Canadian Corps, for it is very evident that undisciplined troops could not have given such an account of themselves when pitted against the flower of the German army. The casualty lists, too, throw some light on this suggestion: here we find that the proportion of officer casualties in battle was almost twice that suffered in the ranks, a conclusive proof, if such were necessary, that the Canadian troops were well and gallantly led. True, the type of discipline varied from that obtaining in European armies, where all classes were brought up with a respect for rank amounting almost to veneration. This attitude of mind was totally foreign to men used to judging every one according to his merits and unaccustomed to showing respect or deference to anyone who could not stand firmly on his own two feet without the artificial support of wealth or titles.

From the first the Canadians showed that their performance in the field was second to none but for a time they chafed under what seemed to them the attitude of servility implied by the paying of compliments and the punctilious observance of the rules of the service in dealing with those of senior or junior military rank. Gradually, however, the men in the ranks appreciated the fact that these rules and observances had a direct bearing on efficiency and that by adhering closely to them self-respect and soldierly pride were enhanced rather than undermined, while *esprit de corps* grew to an extent hitherto unknown to them. Contact with highly trained British troops had its effect. On one occasion when a Canadian Division was in line next the British Guards Division an arrangement was made whereby Guardsmen were attached to the Canadians to instruct in matters of discipline and correct military bearing, while a picked detachment of Canadians went to demonstrate to the Guards the finer points of scouting and trench raiding. To foster a proper pride in the regiment other British Battalions temporarily ex-

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changed officers and N. C. O.'s with their affiliated Canadian units, and so the traditions and customs of the Old Army were adopted and became an additional source of inspiration to the men of the New.

THE FIRST EXPERIENCE OF REAL WARFARE AT YPRES.

The First Division went into the line for the first time in March, 1915, and occupied for a month the Fleurbaix sector south of Armentières in the rich alluvial country by the Lys. Here

and choked by the fumes, thought that the devil was at their throats and fell back in disorder. Here, it should be remembered that gas masks, box-respirators and all such anti-gas appliances were quite unknown. The use of gas came as a surprise and as such met with corresponding success at first. Steel helmets, too, were a later innovation and did not make their appearance until early in 1916.

When, in consequence of this attack, the Canadian left flank was ex-



WEARY AND WORN—BUT NOT SAD

Tired but smiling: a view of the Canadian Highlanders returning from the front. This regiment—true to its honorable traditions—had a most distinguished record in the war, and was many times reduced to a "cadre" or frame regiment only, for its casualties were so severe. The Germans learned to go in dread of such troops.

British Official

came our first experience of actual warfare and here to some extent we became familiar with the ways of war. In the last week of March the Division was relieved and marched through Ypres on the 14th of April to relieve the French between St. Julien and Gravenstafel, where the trenches were even more elementary and offered less protection than the flimsy parapets and watery mudholes of the line to the south. The first few days were ominously quiet but on the afternoon of the 22nd of April the Germans, following the first cloud of poison gas ever discharged by a so-called civilized nation, attacked the French positions on our left. There, colored Colonial troops were in the line, and it is little wonder that the Zouaves and Turcos, dazed

posed, it became necessary to act and act quickly, but now the untried amateur soldiers became suddenly transformed into a skilful body of veterans; with grim determination they withstood repeated discharges of gas followed by violent onslaughts in close formation. They launched counterattacks with vigor and dash, as if to the manner born, and as a result of the devotion and self sacrifice of every man the line was re-established. Three days later, April 25th, British reinforcements had come to our assistance and a week later the Division finally marched out again through the shattered town of Ypres, now a deserted ruin, a veritable city of the dead. The Second Battle of Ypres, apart from settling the future standard for Can-

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ada's fighting forces, had a remarkable effect on the people at home. It proved a stimulus to recruiting and awakened the country to a full sense of her share in the war.

After refitting and being reinforced, the First Division in the latter part of May was engaged in the Battle of Festubert and fought at Givenchy in June. The object of our attacks in this part of the front was the capture of La Bassée and the Aubers Ridge, whereby Lille would be menaced but chiefly through the lack of ammunition this ambitious purpose was not achieved. The British Army had, however, succeeded in diverting reinforcements from the French front on the right where heavy fighting was in progress.

A COMPARISON OF THE CANADIAN WITH THE BRITISH SOLDIER.

With the original British Expeditionary Force we had no opportunity of coming in contact, for the first 7 divisions had been practically exterminated in November, 1914. Of the British Territorials and Kitchener's Army we had an intimate knowledge for they frequently were in the line on our flanks and occasionally fought under the Canadian Corps. As compared with the Canadians these troops seemed prone to govern their actions rather by rule than by principle; this gave wonderful results as long as experienced officers were in command, but without these a soldier lacking in initiative, be he ever so ready to conscientiously carry out every order to the letter, is not likely to show presence of mind in untried emergencies and a dogged acceptance of what appears to be inevitable does not compensate for failure to quickly grasp a situation and act with vigor and determination when unforeseen circumstances arise.

As regards larger units and higher formations the Canadians had a distinct advantage, for, while British Divisions were continually being sent from one Army Corps to another, the Canadian Divisions almost invariably fought side by side under the direction of their own Corps Staff and, as officers were being continually changed from

one division to another by promotion, an intimacy and understanding developed between units and staffs which led to that singleness of thought and unity of action through which the Canadian Corps was considered and later proved itself to be the hardest hitting force on any battle front.

THE CANADIAN SOLDIER COMPARED WITH THE FRENCH.

It is difficult to make a comparison between the Frenchman and the Canadian as a soldier. The French fell under two headings, shock troops and line divisions; the incomparable dash and fervor of the former contrasted strongly with the live and let-live attitude of the latter but by the skilful employment of each the French Higher Command achieved extraordinary successes of which the defense of Verdun is typical. Their mercurial temperament, however, had its disadvantages. For example—the troops who made brilliant attacks on our flank at Amiens could not endure the inaction of holding the line under heavy fire when the battle again became stationary. We have heard the Frenchman in the depths of despair, when all seemed lost, exclaim "Pauvre France; Pauvre Paris," and again we have heard the victorious "Vive la France; Vive la Patrie," which roused the patriotism of every man and carried the line forward with irresistible force.

Such extremes of feeling were unknown among the Canadians. The battle of Vimy Ridge showed that they could either hold the line or attack as occasion demanded, for, after spending the winter of 1916-1917 in these abominable ditches, dignified by the name of trenches, sheltering in the funk holes, sharing what dugouts there were with the rats (forced to the front line by the awful desolation of that area), enduring the cold and the wet as well as the continual bombing, gassing and shelling, they attacked with all their wonted vigor on that memorable Easter Monday and broke through the elaborate defenses of the Ridge on which the Germans had lavished so much toil to make impregnable, as if they were pack-thread.



A DIVISIONAL SUPPLY COLUMN

A Divisional Supply column sorting out provisions beside the railroad which has just brought them up from the great storehouses at the ports of entry. The organization of the Commissariat department was as essential to the army as that of the ordnance department and its machinery functioned in excellent order shortly after the outbreak of war.



OLD INDIAN WAY OF CARRYING HEAVY LOADS

This method—called the tump-line—of carrying a pack on the back by placing a strap across the forehead is familiar to woodsmen in this country who learned it from the Indians. It was used by Canadians on the Western Front and caused considerable interest among the neighboring troops, who were quick to see its practicability in leaving the arms free.

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In September, 1915, the second Canadian Division arrived in France and the Canadian Army Corps was formed. Then by March, 1916, the Third Canadian Division, organized chiefly from Canadian units already in France, was taking its turn in the line and in the middle of August, 1916, the Fourth Canadian Division had arrived

intensity fell for three hours on the trenches held by the Third Canadian Division and the few survivors checked but could not stop the German advance. For several days the situation was critical but a heroic attack by fresh troops of the 1st Canadian Division on the 13th restored the situation and the routine of trench warfare was



A GAME OF RAT-CATCHING BY WAY OF VARIETY

Few were more ready than the Canadians to turn into sport even grim and exhausting tasks of life on the battle front. Aside from fighting there were many activities that fitted into a day's or a night's work. Killing rats is not a glorious performance, but when rats are rampant some one must do the job.

just in time to take part, as did the rest of the Corps, in the Battle of the Somme.

The late Autumn and Winter of 1915-16 had been uneventful; the Germans had been occupied with their offensives on the Russian and Serbian fronts and were quite satisfied to let the Western Front alone, but in March the Third (British) Division blew the great mines which on explosion resulted in the St. Eloi craters, and there the Second Canadian Division had the difficult task of establishing and maintaining the line. This was their first battle and it cost them over 2000 men. In May the Canadian Corps held the front east and south-east of Ypres; on the 2nd of June the Germans began their third attempt to capture the city. A preliminary bombardment of great

resumed and lasted until we left Belgium in August for the Somme.

THE IMPRESSION ON THE CANADIAN MADE BY THE BELGIAN.

The Canadians, although they served long in Flanders, saw very little of the Belgian Army. In August and September, 1914, it was practically obliterated in the defense of Liège and the other fortresses which delayed the German advance just enough to disorganize their elaborate scheme for securing control of the Channel, the success of which depended mainly on speed. The remnant of this gallant little army however, re-equipped from British and French stores and inspired by their King, fought bravely for the last few flooded miles that remained to them of their country. For a time one of their field batteries was attached to the



HAULING A GUN INTO POSITION ON THE CANADIAN FRONT

Heavy artillery has robbed the trees of their primary function of beautifying, and then utilized their denuded trunks as pulleys for hauling the guns out of mud pits and shell craters. What were formerly front line trenches have now, as the tide of war advanced, become the sites of gun emplacements.

British Official



WORK ENTAILED BY GERMAN DEMOLITION

A picture of the Canadian Engineers building an extra bridge across the Canal du Nord. The bridge on the right was constructed by them in eight hours under heavy shell fire from the enemy rear-guards seeking to hold up the pursuit. On the left may be seen a temporary pontoon bridge. During the retreat the Germans systematically destroyed 1731 bridges.

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Canadians and their enthusiasm when they felt that their fire was punishing the violators of their homes was noticeable both in their manner of serving the guns and in the tone of the words of command.

In the terrible battle of the Somme, where the shell fire and all-pervading mud and devastation tried the bodies and souls of our soldiers as in a fur-

its capture was worked out; on April 9th, the four Canadian divisions, after a heavy artillery bombardment, swept abreast over the Ridge in an irresistible attack and in the succeeding weeks thrust the line far clear of the eastern slopes.

THE UNSPEAKABLE HORRORS OF THE STRUGGLE FOR PASSCHENDAELE.

After capturing Vimy Ridge the Canadian Corps continued in the line, making further advances through the Vimy-Farbus defenses and taking the villages of Arleux and Fresnoy. In August we side-slipped northwards and capturing the difficult fortifications of Hill 70 pressed closer on to Lens which the enemy still held in spite of the heavy casualties entailed. Then in October, 1917, when, for political reasons, the British Army had undertaken the costly battle of Passchendaele, the Canadian Corps was withdrawn from the Lens front and sent north to wallow in that crater-pitted sea of mud which at that time extended east and north-east of Ypres—that salient of deathless memory. Here conditions were worse than we had yet experienced and but for the excellent morale and health of the troops and the efficiency of our supply and transport services, it would have been impossible to accomplish the seemingly hopeless tasks assigned as we did, in spite of concentration of gas, the terrific arc-shots carried out by the German Artillery and the incessant bombing raids which might well have blocked our communications completely.

Added to this there was no cover in the area excepting water-logged shell holes and ditches, for trees and hedges had long since disappeared, and the height of the water-level precluded the digging of trenches. Our infantry therefore had to advance up the bare ridges and between the swamps straight at the concrete machine gun emplacements to which the enemy had pinned his faith. Our guns required veritable rafts for platforms to keep them from being buried in the mud and only by superhuman efforts and at a cost of nearly 15,000 casualties our goal at last was reached; Passchendaele village



THE SITE OF THE CHURCH OF PASSCHENDAELE

nace, the 1st, 2nd and 3rd Canadian Divisions again demonstrated their excellent fighting qualities. The 4th, which entered the battle some days after, proved beyond all doubt in its first engagement that it was fully worthy to fight by their side. November, 1916, found the Canadian Corps again in the line, this time opposite Lens and confronted by the historic Vimy Ridge. Since the third month of the war, this feature had been the backbone of the German position in Northern France and its natural strength had been steadily increased by the construction of the strongest and most complete defenses the enemy could devise. In January a scheme for



SOME OF THE CANADIAN CAPTORS OF LENS

The battle for Lens and the capture of the suburbs of the city constitute an important feat of arms in Canadian annals. In this picture a detachment is preparing to make itself at home in dug-outs which have been captured from the enemy a few moments previously. A casual glance at the group glimpses its air of victory.



THE HEROES OF VIMY AND LENS

After capturing Vimy Ridge, where the Canadian contingents covered themselves with glory, groups of machine gunners installed themselves in small pits until the crest literally bristled with the deadly weapons. No places upon the Western Front were more desolate, more war-excoriated than these Flanders ridges upon which bombardment had beaten almost ceaselessly.

British Official

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and the ridge from which the enemy had commanded Ypres these last three years was handed over to the British troops and by the middle of November the Corps was once more back in old familiar haunts holding the line on the Lens-Vimy front. In all these battles our men performed prodigies of valor and endurance, daily adding fresh lustre to the name of Canada.

All that winter and early spring we planned and constructed elaborate

it lay the few remaining collieries of Northern France. When this great blow fell early on Michael's Day, the 21st of March, 1918, the thin line on the St. Quentin front could not hold and by the following day only individual units, more or less disorganized and out of touch with their flanks, fought rear-guard actions from day to day until the advance was stayed. One unit there, however, the First Canadian Motor Machine Gun Bri-



A BUFFET LUNCHEON IN THE TRENCHES

This looks like a more or less tidy and quiet spot for an informal luncheon but the chances are that the quiet was not oppressive where these Canadians sat lunching in the trench. Not fifty yards away were the German lines, whose occupants would be all too ready to interrupt such a party. Yet the lads appear as cosy and unconcerned as if their sand-bag shelter were the most secure of picnic retreats.

defensive systems, digging trenches, erecting barbed wire, building gun emplacements and preparing in every possible way for the last and mightiest blow of the German Army. Now that the Russian front had disappeared and with the release of troops consequent on the successful campaigns in Rumania and Italy, it was expected that the enemy would concentrate all his force on the Western Front and put forth every effort to win the war by defeating the Allies before American troops could be trained and transported in sufficient numbers to prove a factor in the scale. Vimy Ridge was the centre of the British front. It covered our lateral communications and behind

gade, fighting on the Amiens front for nineteen days, although 75 per cent of its strength was lost, never lost its discipline, its cohesion or its willingness to fight.

THE GERMAN SOLDIER A MYSTERY TO THE CANADIAN.

The character of the German soldier was never fully understood by the Canadian; that subject did not appeal to him. Generally speaking the German was regarded as a man with a diseased mind; generals and privates alike had been imbued with the teachings of hatred, and the belief that might is right was evidently bred in the bone. In a word their thoughts were not our thoughts, neither were their ways

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our ways. On the other hand the characteristics of the enemy, as disclosed by his methods and conduct of warfare, were observed and most carefully studied. Our scouts could quickly discern the dispositions and demeanor of the enemy by reading the little signs of the front line which revealed to their trained minds his probable course of action. Further back from concealed points of vantage a tireless watch was kept on the enemy's movements while all the information furnished by air

their attacks, though costly, repeatedly gained ground, but as their numbers dwindled and the tide began to turn misgivings arose in the mind of the man in the ranks; he could be driven on to victory but that kind of discipline could not readily endure hardship or defeat.

HOW UNITS SACRIFICED THEMSELVES FOR THE WHOLE.

Instances of unselfishness on the part of the Canadian soldier might be given of a whole unit, as the con-



IN FLANDERS' FIELDS

A memorial service to men of the Quebec regiment who fell gloriously on Vimy Ridge, which was first captured from the Germans April 9, 1917. The taking of the ridge was an operation which involved practically every Canadian unit. The Germans had transformed the hills into an eight-thousand-yard-long fortress, and they deemed the position impregnable.

and ground observers or gathered from photographs, captured maps, and other sources was collected and collated at headquarters, where maps were compiled showing with incredible accuracy the details of the enemy's defense.

The elaborate system obtaining in the German Army and the slavish adherence to that system were responsible in no small measure for the failure of that great military machine, for in any organization it is the principle that must govern if success is to be attained and the methods of applying that principle must necessarily be capable of quick readjustment to meet changed conditions. At first, with their superior numbers and rigid discipline,

duct of the artillery and the stretcher bearers in the battle of Hill 70 shows. This battle was launched on the morning of August 15, 1917, and as usual we succeeded in reaching our objectives on time. The enemy, as we had supposed, was determined not to leave us in possession of such valuable ground without making a strenuous effort to regain it. In the course of eight days he counter-attacked us no less than thirty-five times. In those counter-attacks, although we were using not more than twenty-eight battalions, we identified sixty-nine German battalions. One night in preparing for a counter attack he heavily gassed our battery positions. The pro-

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tection against gas is the gas mask but the use of it makes it more difficult for our gunners to lay their sights and set their fuses correctly. The infantry were putting up the S. O. S. calls and our gunners, rather than let their comrades in the front line down, removed their gas masks and worked throughout

he did. The two guns were overrun but we directed such incessant fire on the area that the enemy was never able to remove them. When the position was recovered a few days later it was found that these guns had been fought to the last, that every round of ammunition had been expended and

that the crews had remained at their posts until killed — an example of unflinching heroism not surpassed in the whole of the proud history of the British Army.

THE CANADIAN CORPS WAS A FLEXIBLE ORGANIZATION.

Of the half million men who made up the Canadian



BACK TO THE BASE

A Canadian Infantryman covered with mud returning from the front line.

the night without them. They paid the inevitable penalty, for over two hundred of our gunners were casualties from gas poisoning that night. The stretcher bearers also, whose duty it was to carry from the battlefield the wounded, displayed similar sterling qualities. It is difficult at any time to carry wounded men from the battlefield, but those difficulties are increased at night. The ground to be traversed is nothing but shell holes with great masses of tangled barbed wire to further hamper progress. Desirous of seeing that the wounded should not suffer unnecessary pain the stretcher bearers also removed their gas masks and worked throughout that night without them. Such was the spirit of the Canadian Corps.

Although the Canadians never permanently lost a gun, it is true that in June, 1918, two guns were temporarily lost. These two guns were in action as emergency guns in Sanctuary Wood, within a few hundred yards of the front line. Their role was to open fire only when the enemy attacked, and attack

Expeditionary Force over 400,000 crossed the Atlantic, and of these all but 62,000 were volunteers, for it was not until the winter of 1917 that it was considered advisable to put the Military Service Act into operation.

The First Contingent, which left our shores in September, 1914, had in two years expanded and developed into a mighty force. Each of the four divisions was complete in itself and had its full complement of infantry, artillery, engineers, machine guns and all services, while the Corps troops, composed chiefly of artillery and numbering as they did some 17,000, brought the total strength of the Canadian Army Corps up to well over 100,000 men. Owing to the fact already mentioned that the Canadian Corps always fought together and got to know one another well, it was possible to make good use of this cohesion and mutual understanding. Sometimes the First Division was called on to do something rather than the Second; sometimes the Second Division would be chosen to fight in a certain position rather than

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the Third or Fourth. Then the Third might be picked for another operation and the Fourth for still another. Sometimes the Engineers were pooled. The Engineers of the Fourth Division were making bridges for the First Division, while the Engineers of the Second were making roads for the Third, and so on. The artillery was also pooled and we fought as one big machine. The British divisions and other troops which were occasionally attached to the Corps, at once saw the advantage of our methods and invariably expressed their regret at leaving, or pleasure on returning to serve with the Canadians.

Another great factor that counted for our success was the fact that we changed our organization to meet altered conditions as they arose. The Engineers and Machine Gun establishments illustrate this. In 1914 our Divisional Engineers numbered some 700, in July 1918 their strength was about 3,000 per division. This reorganization made possible our steady advances of the last hundred days. At the beginning we had some 48 machine guns to a division, at the end we had 96 of the heavier pattern and some 384 of the light pattern, making 480 per division, or ten times the original strength.

THE CANADIAN CORPS DID NOT INCLUDE ALL CANADIAN SOLDIERS.

Other fighting land forces not in the Canadian Army Corps were the Canadian Cavalry Brigade which served as part of the British Third Cavalry Division, and then there were various detached units serving in Northern Russia, Mesopotamia and Palestine, while Canadian Hospitals were early sent to Greece and Egypt to care for the sick and wounded from the Dardanelles. Canada sent overseas, fully equipped and staffed, many hospitals; these were complete in every detail and had a total complement of over 23,000 beds.

In the rear areas were the 13 battalions of Canadian Railway Troops, numbering some 15,000. They built over 1,000 miles of broad gauge track in France and 800 miles of narrow

gauge, much of the latter being on the Lens-Vimy front, where we had a system rivaling any modern railroad, and managed by a mining engineer from Northern Ontario. Seventy per cent of all the lumber used on the Allied front in France was supplied by the men of the Canadian Forestry Corps, over 11,000 strong, who felled timber and operated mills in England, Scotland and France. Besides these there were other lines of communication and



TWO FINE SOLDIERS

Field-Marshal Sir Douglas Haig photographed with General Sir Arthur Currie, commanding the Canadian Corps.

base troops, salvage units, butcheries, bakeries, and such diverse organizations as are required by a modern army.

THE BRITISH ARMY AND THE CANADIAN FORCES.

Although for military operations the Canadian Forces in the Field were placed under the Commander-in-Chief of the British Armies in France, for matters of organization and administration all Canadian troops overseas whether combatant or non-combatant were controlled by the Government of Canada through the Minister, Overseas Military Forces of Canada, whose office was in London, England.

The work of Canadians in the Imperial Services can only be touched on

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here. In the British Navy, with commissions in the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve, were about five hundred, some employed with the fleet, some in the Auxiliary Patrol Service and a few carrying out special research work on appliances for submarine detection. In the Royal Air Force were some eight

most part from among the younger graduates of the Staff College they were expert students of the art of war. When the First Canadian Division went to France the Divisional Commander and most of the senior staff officers, men of the same type, were lent by the British War Office; the Second, Third and Fourth Divisions, too, had a number of British staff officers at first. By midsummer 1917 Canadians had replaced all of these with the exception of the senior staff officers at Corps and Divisional Headquarters; for the last three years of the war out of the 140 officers commanding units in the Corps only two held commissions in the British Army, and by August 1918 only a dozen British officers were still with the Corps.

THE GREAT RECORD OF THE LAST HUNDRED DAYS.

The most remarkable success achieved by the Corps was the success of the last 100 days fighting which began on August 8th. On the 13th of August, General Ludendorff asked the German Chancellor and the Kaiser to come to Great Headquarters, where he explained to them the full effects, to quote the Germans' own words, of the "inglorious 8th of August." It may not be generally known that on August 1, 1918, it was the intention of the Supreme

War Council to fight only one more battle during 1918. That battle was to be the Battle of Amiens. The British, French and Belgian armies were to sit down, hold the enemy, and wait for the development of the big American Army, and the war was to be finished in the spring of 1919. That was the plan agreed upon. The Battle of Amiens was an important battle, because it was designed to free the Paris-Amiens railway, and to remove the danger of a German breakthrough between the French and British. The objective of that battle was what we called the Old Amiens Defense

thousand. That figure itself gives a clear indication of the Canadian temperament; over half of them were enlisted in Canada by the Imperial authorities, the others were transferred or seconded from Canadian units in France and England. In the British Army too, towards the end of the war, were to be found several hundred officers who had served in the Canadian ranks before the winning of their commissions.

Prior to the war the practice had been in vogue of lending officers of the British Army to Canada to assist in training the Militia; picked for the



LOADING UP AMMUNITION AT THE FRONT

© Canada, 1919



THE SPOILS OF VICTORY

A collection of field guns, machine-guns, trench mortars, etc., captured by the Canadians on the Arras front in September 1918. In all, troops from the Dominion captured 850 artillery guns, and 4,200 machine-guns; they retook 130 towns and villages and liberated 310,000 French and Belgian civilians. Rationing the latter was a heavy strain on the commissariat. ©Canada, 1919



ADVANCED DRESSING STATION NEAR INCHEY

By September 4 the British line was established along the west bank of the North Canal, and the last objective in an extraordinary series of grand victories was attained. The Canadians were fighting in Sains, a memorable position on the flank of Sir Julian Byng's early thrust into the Hindenburg system. Then Inchy village was taken and the North Canal crossed. ©Canada, 1919

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Line, some eight miles east of where the line then was.

The Canadian Corps, with the exception of the Motor Machine Gun Brigade, already mentioned, had taken no share in the Spring fighting but it had held thirty-five miles of front (one fifth of the entire British front) and guarded the sole remaining coal fields of Northern France—that portion of France than which there was no bait more tempting to the enemy. So,

the Corps was used as the spear-head, the centre of the attack. All other troops taking part in the battle of August 8th conformed to the movement of the Canadian Corps. We made the plan, we set the time and the pace in that battle. We put in our artillery at night, got in all our shell supplies at night, and camouflaged the guns. Not a single gun was fired until the morning of the battle, and so well did our gunners handle their guns, so well



THE SINEWS OF WAR

General Sir Arthur Currie inspecting an artillery column which is wending its way toward the front. With such tremendous loads continuously upon them it is small wonder that the roads needed constant repair, and the necessary work upon them involved thousands of men. For this purpose were used on parts of the front gangs of Chinese coolies.

although it had not done any fighting during March and April, it played a part commensurate with the strength of the Corps. It was withdrawn from the line because it was Sir Douglas Haig's remaining reserve. It was withdrawn so that wherever the enemy next struck, the Corps could be diverted to the front. Up to that time, May, 1918, the Germans had struck three times, and every time with great success. It was only a question of how many more blows we could stand.

THE CANADIAN CORPS THE SPEAR-HEAD OF THE ATTACK IN AMIENS.

When it became necessary then to fight the Battle of Amiens, which was to be the last battle fought in 1918,

did they determine the exact location of their positions, and so thorough was their knowledge of exactly where the German lines were, that the guns were able to open fire without previous registration and shoot a perfect barrage.

Our movements were carefully camouflaged, no easy matter when the whole Corps (over 100,000 men) had to be moved over fifty miles in one week and all the preparations for the attack had to be made in three days. We made every effort to make the enemy believe that we were in a different part of the country altogether, or that we were going to a different part of the country, and with such success that on the morning of the battle a German

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medical officer who was captured, congratulated one of our Senior Medical Officers on the success with which the wounded were being evacuated, and said: "I wish I could congratulate our intelligence service with the same pleasure." On being asked "What do you mean?" he replied: "Well, we thought you were at Mont Kemmel." They had misplaced the Canadian Corps by seventy miles.

up against the old Somme battle field, which, two years earlier, had been the scene of that never-to-be-forgotten struggle, and from which the enemy had voluntarily retired in 1917. His voluntary retirement meant that the wire had not been cut, and the old trenches and the old machine gun emplacements were still there. On August 13-14, he had filled them with all the reserves he had been able to rush to the new battle front.



CANADIAN SOLDIERS NEAR LENS

A picture of the cemetery near Lens as it was when the Canadians drove the Germans back in 1917. The city and surrounding region were almost a continual battlefield throughout the war. When the enemy captured Lens they compelled it to pay a heavy indemnity. In its vicinity are highly productive coal mines. British Official

The battle began on August 8th; as stated above, the objective of that battle was the Old Amiens Line. We got through the first night, making that day a penetration of eight miles—the greatest penetration up to that time made by any troops in any army in any one day's advance. This success had a wonderful effect. It is not overstating the case to say that a great many people despaired of our ability to hold the Germans back. After that success the whole British Army looked again towards the Rhine; within the breast of the whole British nation hope dawned again. A wonderful moral effect that battle had. We were told to go on. Next day we went on three or four miles. On August 13th we had penetrated to a depth of 24,000 yards, captured over 9,000 prisoners and over 200 guns, and then we came

PREPARATIONS TO SMASH THROUGH THE HINDENBURG LINE

There was no urgent need for proceeding further here at that time, so the battle was broken off. We were not withdrawn from the Amiens front, but after the British Third Army had successfully attacked towards Bapaume we again moved North to Arras on the 22nd of August, and at once prepared to smash the Hindenburg line, which now was the chief obstacle. In it the Germans had placed their trust, they would hold it until the end of the war, and before they would think of defeat that line had first to be broken. If we could break it, victory might yet come in 1918.

The Canadian Corps attacked it at its hinge with the Drocourt-Quéant line, a position that was very strongly fortified but one which, if success

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attended us, would yield great results. The battle was begun on August 26th, finished on September 2nd, and during those eight days we pierced five complete systems of trenches. The last was the Drocourt-Quéant system, which we broke on September 2nd. It was the first time the Hindenburg line had been definitely pierced, and the troops got through. The result of that success was remarkable. The very next day the troops of the armies to the

capture of Bourlon Wood, and eventually the taking of Cambrai.

HOW THE CANADIANS TOOK BOURLON WOOD AND CAMBRAI.

No position ever assaulted offered more seemingly insurmountable difficulties than did the Canal du Nord line; we had to cross the Canal on a front of 2,600 yards and then were faced by the strongly entrenched German position on the rising ground between us and Cambrai. On the first



WANTON DESTRUCTION IN CAMBRAI

Canadians entering the great square of Cambrai when they retook that town on October 9, 1918. Three sides of the square were on fire, and as the Allies had refrained from shelling it, all the damage done to Cambrai was done by the Germans, mostly by means of fires started and mines prepared when they found themselves compelled to evacuate it. On the afternoon of the day on which they left it the enemy started shelling the town.

south marched along the roads in fours through territory in which they had been held up.

Then came the end of September, when Marshal Foch planned those four great hammer blows which finally crumpled up the enemy. On September 26th, the French and Americans hit in the Argonne. On September 27th, the Canadians and the left of the Third Army hit in across the Canal du Nord. On September 28th, the Second Army and the Belgians hit in the north. On September 29th, the Fourth Army, which included the Second American Corps, hit in on the front near St. Quentin. Our share was the crossing of the Canal du Nord, the

day we captured Bourlon Wood and all the high ground; although our front was now over 14,000 yards, we beat off every division that tried to drive us back; by October we had out-flanked Cambrai on the north, on the 9th the town itself was ours.

By the victory of Cambrai the last organized positions of the enemy on our front were overrun, his fighting from then until the close of the war being largely rear-guard actions. On November 1st, after a short sharp fight, we captured Mont Houy and as a result Valenciennes was in our hands by the following day. Some hours before the armistice we occupied Mons, and when hostilities ceased our line

ran well to the east of that historic town where the British troops had first fought the German invader in August, 1914.

During these hundred days the Canadian Corps delivered over five hundred square miles of territory, two hundred and twenty-eight cities, towns and villages were liberated including Cambrai, Denain, Valenciennes and

December, 1919, and contributed two of the four divisions which held the bridge-head in that area.

THE CANADIANS AND AMERICANS MARCH INTO GERMANY TOGETHER.

No force of equal size ever accomplished so much in a similar space of time during the war, or any other war, and the results achieved stand out a clear testimony of the superior energy,



THE CANADIAN BLACK WATCH ENTERING MONS

A picture of the Canadian Black Watch marching past the saluting base on the entry of General Horne into Mons. By a strange coincidence as the Imperial Black Watch were the last to leave Mons in the immortal retreat of 1914, so their Canadian comrades were the first to enter in 1918.

Mons, over 31,000 prisoners were captured and nearly 590 heavy and field guns, several thousands of machine guns and hundreds of trench mortars.

The Canadian Corps in that short period met and defeated decisively over 50 German divisions, i.e., approximately one-quarter of the total German forces on the Western front. Elements of 17 additional divisions were also encountered and crushed and after having put forth this superhuman effort, the Canadian Corps marched across Belgium in the wake of the retreating German Army, crossed the Rhine at Bonn on the 13th of

powers of endurance, and fine fighting qualities of our men.

It was on the march to the Rhine that we first encountered the troops of the United States. During many of the earlier days of the war we had long and anxiously looked for the arrival of American troops. It was our wish and hope that the men from this side of the Atlantic might fight side by side. That wish was denied us, but the reports which constantly reached us of the gallantry, the intrepid dash and the splendid fighting qualities of the American soldier made our disappointment more keen. However, if our hopes to

fight side by side were disappointed during the war, we had the privilege of marching side by side through Germany.

The full story of the Canadian soldier in the war has yet to be told, but a few figures will serve to give a general indication of the results achieved. During the war the Canadians captured over 42,000 prisoners, three-

of them. Over 30 of these Victoria Crosses were won in the last 100 days. Of other honors and decorations the records give a full account, and from them might be quoted a wealth of incidents all illustrative of valor and devotion to duty. Suffice it here to say that in addition to many foreign decorations, Canadians received the following awards as well as the sixty-four



THE FUNERAL OF BELL-IRVING

© Canada, 1919.

The funeral of Bell-Irving, a well-known Canadian Scottish officer, near the line.

quarters of them during the last hundred days; they captured nearly 700 guns, some 600 of these after August 8, 1918, with machine guns and trench mortars in proportion. But all this was not done without the loss of a whole army of the best and bravest of Canada's sons; our total battle casualties for the last hundred days were little short of 46,000 and in our four years of service on the Western front we had battle casualties amounting to over 210,000, one quarter of whom had made the supreme sacrifice.

SOME OF THE HONORS WON BY THE CANADIANS.

During the war 571 Victoria Crosses were won and the Canadians won 64

Victoria Crosses already spoken of.

Distinguished Service Order..	708
Military Cross	2,872
Distinguished Conduct Medal.	1,926
Military Medal	12,314

THE IMPRESSION MADE UPON EUROPE BY THE CANADIAN FORCE.

The opinion of the Canadian held by the people of Europe can only be a matter of conjecture. Our first arrival in England came as a complete surprise to the people of the Old Country as a whole, and the enthusiasm of their welcome will not soon be forgotten. It was not an effervescent enthusiasm, for their warm-hearted attitude towards us at all stages of the war, which again found full expression on the Vic-

tory March of the Overseas troops through the capital of the Empire, left no doubts as to their true feelings.

One must visit France to find out what the French thought of us. The shoulder badge of CANADA was a golden key to every French heart. In military circles the Canadian Corps was rated very high, for over 50,000 Frenchmen lay dead on Vimy Ridge

our presence as disturbers of their quiet pastoral life; we were a part of this war, the cause of all their sufferings, and as such were under a cloud. The Belgians we met later, however, after the armistice, the Walloons and the broader-minded inhabitants of the towns and villages where our troops were billeted, had a better grasp of the situation. A large number of them



UNVEILING OF MEMORIAL TO CANADIAN OFFICERS AND MEN

Sir Robert Borden unveiled a memorial to Canadian officers and men who died at the Duchess of Connaught's Red Cross Hospital at Taplow. An old Italian garden in the grounds of "Cliveden," the house of Major Astor, was transformed into a cemetery for Canadians who died in the hospital. © Western Newspaper Union

and we had captured it. Marshal Foch himself in his appreciation of the two outstanding efforts of each of the Allied armies—the French, the Italian, the American, and the British—gave it as his opinion that the two outstanding actions to the credit of the British Army were the stand of the Canadians at the Second Battle of Ypres, and the Battle of Amiens in which the Canadian Corps drove home the main attack and made the deepest penetration.

The Belgians we encountered in Flanders were hardly typical of the Belgian people. They seemed to resent

during the German occupation had learned English so that they could one day talk to their expected deliverers.

THE EFFECT OF EUROPE UPON THE CANADIAN SOLDIER.

To many Canadians Europe was a revelation. Visiting the homes of their ancestors, meeting their relations and greeted with the warmest friendship on all sides, the Motherland seemed to them a wonderful garden, where the smallness of country contrasted strangely with the largeness of its inhabitants. As in France, every fit man was serving his country; the quiet confidence and long-suffering endurance of the people

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in spite of all the hardships and dangers of war brought a realization of what the British Empire means and even a casual observer could not fail to see what patriotism can accomplish. The intense love of country and of their homes was even more remarkable in France and Belgium. The sight of women and old men diligently cultivating their fields regardless of the turmoil of war, and

into the background, while the joys of home, the loyal friendships, and other happy memories of pre-war days were thrown into high relief. It was a shock, after spending years with a body of men bound together by the comradeship of tried service and actuated by high ideals, to rediscover the existence of that parasitic element that never fights, but always tries to exploit



FORWARD TO THE RHINE

Major General Sir H. E. Burstall, commanding the 2nd Canadian Division followed by Brigadier General Panet, R. A., Lieutenant Colonel P. T. Montague, D. S. O., M. C., Lieutenant Colonel R. O. Alexander, D. S. O. and Divisional Headquarters Staff cross the Rhine at Bonn, and are seen passing the Canadian Corps Commander at the saluting base on the bridge. ©Canada, 1919

often under shell fire, left an indelible impression on our minds.

The Canadian soldier like the Canadian nation came out of the war with a fuller and broader vision of the needs of humanity, and with a fund of experience which will go far towards furthering the cause of all mankind. The change from the indescribable sufferings endured by the soldier in the war to the normal conditions of life is so great that the mental readjustment requires a little time. In France Canada was the Land of Promise, the ideal land of our dreams. The trials and difficulties of everyday life had receded

any people in the period of unrest between the close of a great war and the resumption of settled business. But the ideal remains; as in the war success was only won by national discipline, military training, sound organization and sheer hard fighting at the front, so only can success in peace be attained by national discipline, by training every man to be fit and ready to serve his country in time of need, by organizing, conserving and developing our resources, by diligently and consistently working, all for one and one for all. So shall our dreams be realized.



The Leviathan and the Imperator in New York Harbor

CHAPTER LXXII

The People of the United States and the War

THE MANY WAYS IN WHICH THE CIVILIANS STROVE TO HELP WIN THE WAR

"AN incurably civilian people brought face to face with war is always a profoundly appealing and moving spectacle. Sometimes it fills the ardent patriot with misgivings and apprehensions that prove to be groundless." To the civilian masses in the United States, more than a hundred million souls of widely varying traditions, intelligence and economic development, the thought of war was too stupendous to be quickly assimilated. The reactions were of necessity gradual. When France and England were forced into war, the world was instantly changed for their neighbors across the sea as well, but comprehension of that truth came neither instantaneously nor uniformly. A clear and definite understanding of world conditions could not be flashed from shore to shore across the whole land.

A PART OF THE POPULATION IMMEDIATELY RESPONDED.

Many individuals rebounded quickly from the first daze of awe and incredulity into active, sympathetic participation in the struggle. Money and supplies were soon flowing through the channels made ready by the Red Cross and the Relief Clearing Houses established in Paris and New York. Hospitals were supported and supplied with

workers. American youths eagerly devoted themselves to ambulance service, or joined the ranks of French and British fighters. There was no cry from the smitten lands that did not strike an answering vibration from hearts in the United States. After Belgian Relief and French Relief, Polish, Jewish, Armenian and Syrian Relief funds met a warm response.

PEOPLE GAVE FREELY FROM THE VERY BEGINNING.

Various were the conditions and the methods of the donors. A quiet, timid little old lady, proffering a gift of flannel night gowns to each of several relief committees, unostentatiously laid down with the garments, in each case, a 1000 dollar bill. Impulsive, kind-hearted Jewish men and women, following the lead of their wealthy financiers who were giving hundreds of thousands of dollars, flooded Carnegie Hall, poured out their jewels, their trinkets and their cash, and then, if need were, trudged miles on foot to their homes at the far side of the city. A world famous musician and his wife spent their strength almost utterly to work for the salvation of their native land. Little children gathered together a few "pennies" by some tiny sale. Society leaders secured thousands of dollars at

bazaars and bridge parties. There were right hands that never allowed the left hands to know what they were doing; and there were right hands that carefully waited for an auspicious moment to show what they were doing. Ex-President Taft likened the coming of the war-catastrophe to an electric shock, arousing the American people to generosity. As yet, however, they were but taking the first lessons in extensive giving.

THE GROWTH OF PUBLIC OPINION FAVORABLE TO THE ALLIES.

Through the months of suspense when pacifism, honest and otherwise, German propaganda and German plotting were abroad in the land, in spite of a carefully-sustained official neutrality, public opinion in the country was swinging ever farther and farther to the side of the Allies and gathering momentum for a blow to smite the perpetrators of disaster. "The vox populi" says someone, "speaks at times in delphic tones and only rarely are its words uncompromisingly explicit." The war crisis offered one of those rare occasions when the tone and meaning were unmistakable. Pacifism of the better sort was indefinitely postponed, as one of its advocates declared for himself. The great mass of the people was pro-Ally.

After the Lusitania horror, neutrality was doomed. "Preparedness" became a watch-word. Yet, there were parts of the country that "needed the dramatic and eventful days at the beginning of February (1917) and the moving events" that followed to bring things home to them and arouse them fully, so foreign to their traditions and their ideals was a desire for war, and so difficult was it for them to comprehend that this was a necessary war, for the protection of those very traditions and ideals. But the hour struck at last. Mass meetings in the great cities and promises of support from every section of the country carried the nation, now eager for action, past the threats of German agents, past the last protests of pacifist propagandists up to the moment of declaration of war on Good Friday, April 6, 1917.

WHAT HAD BEEN DONE BEFORE THE UNITED STATES ENTERED THE WAR.

When that moment came, certain organizations were already in working order for the new undertakings. The composition of the Council for National Defense, created by act of Congress in the summer of 1916 and ready for active operation after March, 1917, has been described in Chapter XLV. Its work was carried on through a vast system whose great arteries (State Councils) branched out into far-reaching capillaries (the county and community councils). With field agents traveling up and down the land, gathering and scattering information and encouragement, the farthest and smallest groups were brought into touch with the centre.

Two months before the nation entered the war, the National League for Woman's Service had been organized in anticipation of the need of having ready some definite programme for volunteer workers. The aim was to fit each woman into the spot where she could serve best. Within the two months the membership had come to number 50,000. The Red Cross, already actively engaged in its great primary mission, promptly expanded its service and set hosts of willing hands and brains at new tasks in addition to the familiar ones. Knitting, preparing bandages and other surgical supplies, making garments for hospital patients or for destitute refugees,—these occupations were continued, the number of workers and the output of supplies increasing rapidly. First Aid classes in nursing, canteen work, motor corps duties, and the many valuable labors of home service divisions offered opportunities to additional thousands of eager candidates for usefulness.

THE CAMPAIGNS FOR CONSERVATION AND INCREASED PRODUCTION OF FOOD.

Wherever it could be done, these great general organizing agencies (among which must be included the Women's Committee of the Council for National Defense) made use of existing organizations to save time and to avoid duplication of effort. Much was accomplished by co-ordina-

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tion and co-operation of forces. The intelligence and training of those who ardently desired to serve their country and humanity did not always measure up to their willingness; but special training was provided, where possible and necessary, and a strong effort was made to keep the square peg from trying to push into a round hole. The most interesting and stirring aspect of the wide, energetic mobilizing movement was the voluntary nature of the service. Boys and girls, men and women—on the farm and in the city's heart—high and humble—tried to find their jobs and to do them.

Perhaps the campaigns for food conservation and production showed most clearly this universal determination to "carry on." Before the executive had been empowered, in August, 1917, to take over the control of food and fuel, plans had been laid and statements made public. Of the 971,000,000 bushels of bread and fodder grains that the Allies would need for the next year, the United States must furnish a great part. The planting season was past; there was no way of materially swelling the production for that year. The only way to meet the demand was by careful management and strict saving. After warning against the dangers of speculation and profiteering; cutting off, by means of embargo measures, leakage through neutral markets into the enemy's stores; and planning to save some 100,000,000 bushels by the prohibition of distilled liquor manufacture, the government working through its new Food Administration Board took over the entire sugar industry, placing it under a strict licensing system from October 1. Already, a \$50,000,000 United States Grain Corporation had begun operations in the wheat market and established prices there. The farmers were guaranteed a minimum price of \$2.20 a bushel for

wheat, and speculation was forbidden. Beginning November 1, twenty staple foodstuffs were included in the licensing system. On November 12, it was extended to cover every bakery using ten barrels of flour a month or more.

It is probable that there were far more than two million "war gardens"



"THE GREATEST MOTHER IN THE WORLD"

The lady from whom Foringer's familiar poster was drawn. The poster was used effectively in the Red Cross campaign.

Photograph by
G. V. Buck, Washington, D. C.

cultivated, during the summer of 1917, on land that would otherwise have been idle. Vacant lots, back-yards, and spaces usually devoted to decorative plants were turned into vegetable gardens and cared for by amateur farmers. Business men and women, housewives, school boys and girls became members of this impromptu land army, helping to increase the supplies for local consumption. Boys of sufficient years and strength, in many cases, spent the summer or part of it working on farms; and many college girls volunteered to use some of their

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vacation weeks farming either on the college fields or elsewhere.

THE MOVEMENT TO SAVE SUGAR FOR SOLDIERS AND CIVILIANS IN EUROPE.

But the husbanding of supplies in the kitchens of the land and voluntary restriction of the fare upon the tables of the land counted most in providing for the lives of precious millions in Europe during the winter 1917-18. In September, the Food Administrator, Herbert C. Hoover, made the following announcement about the sugar situation:—

"Our consumption is at the rate of ninety pounds per person per year—a little under four ounces per day per person. The French people are on a ration of sugar equal to only twenty-one pounds per annum per person—a little more than the weight of a silver dollar each day. The English and Italian rations are also not over one ounce per day.

"The French people will be entirely without sugar for over two months if we refuse to part with enough from our stocks to keep them supplied with even this small allowance, as it is not available from any other quarter.

"Sugar even to a greater amount than the French ration is a human necessity. If our people will reduce by one-third their purchases and consumption of candy and of sugar for other purposes than preserving fruit, which we do not wish to interfere with, we can save the French situation."

When pledge-cards promising support to the Administrator in the matter of food conservation were distributed by the help of Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls and others of the service organizations, one family out of every three promptly signed them, as well as ninety per cent of the better class hotels. In addition, after September, meatless Tuesdays and wheatless Wednesdays were generally observed in private homes and public eating-houses.

THE AMOUNT OF WHEAT AND MEAT SAVED BY REDUCING CONSUMPTION.

Some figures from the statements concerning export of foodstuffs indicate what was accomplished by these

methods. Sir William Goode, of the British Food Ministry, announced that from July, 1917, to April 1, 1918, 80,000,000 bushels of wheat and wheat products had been exported from the United States to the Allies. Since the official estimate had been that owing to crop shortage only 20,000,000 bushels would have been available for export under normal conditions, at least 50,000,000 bushels were calculated to have been furnished through the individual restraint exercised by the people themselves, who either ate less white bread or gave up eating it altogether.

In January, 1918, the Allies made a request for 70,000,000 pounds of frozen beef a month for the three months following. In March, 86,000,000 pounds of beef and beef products were shipped to them, an amount twenty per cent larger than in any previous month for seven years. This increase represented the reduction in domestic consumption of beef. In that same month, March, the export of pork and pork products amounted to 308,000,000 pounds, which was more than six times the normal. The year's saving on sugar by voluntary economizing was estimated to have been about 400,000 tons. It must not be understood that these supplies were gifts. The European nations paid in cash or bonds for the greater part of them, but it was American self-denial which made it possible to send so much.

Other eloquent figures are found in the reports of hotels and restaurants for two months in the autumn of 1917, which showed a saving of 17,700,000 pounds of meat, 8,000,000 pounds of wheat flour, and 2,000,000 pounds of sugar. The reduction of waste was surely indicated, also, in the marked decrease in garbage collected.

THE SLOGAN, "FOOD WILL WIN THE WAR," ACCEPTED BY THE PEOPLE.

To arouse and sustain interest in the food campaign a variety of devices was employed. Magazines and newspapers gave freely of their space for articles intended to educate or stimulate the public; posters were displayed everywhere; lectures, demonstrations and

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class instruction made for greater intelligence concerning the values, uses and preparation of foods. Colleges and schools introduced courses in these and kindred subjects, to prepare competent workers to serve under the Food Administration or to forward its purpose in other ways. Canning cam-

practical experience and labor of the farmer. The farmer's wife and daughters and young sons took up their end with vigor and enthusiasm. Town and city dwellers kept up with the crescendo movement. The spring and summer of 1918 showed an unprecedented area of planting—about 289,-



STUDENT ARMY TRAINING CORPS, COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

In response to an appeal of the War Department, 350 colleges and universities agreed to pass under Government control, October 1, 1918. Simultaneously, student soldiers in all these institutions took the oath of allegiance to the country's flag. About 150,000 young men, enrolled, were under orders and entitled to soldier's pay. As a military unit they were called the Student Army Training Corps. Each college campus became a military reservation.

paings and competitions resulted in the domestic conservation of great stores of fruits and vegetables, North Carolina leading the country, in 1917, with a record of over 7,000,000 cans. The estimate for the whole country, that year, is something over 500,000,000 quarts stored up for winter use. Even this number shrinks into modest proportions in comparison with the 1918 records of 1,450,000,000 cans.

With the inspiring motto, "Food will win the war," kept in the foreground, the nation spurred up its forces of production, toiling, experimenting, expanding its resources. The scientific expert and the specialist bent their knowledge and skill to join with the

000,000 acres—yielding, in spite of winter cold and summer drouth, a harvest of cereals that outran almost all previous experience. The number of home war gardens for the year was over 5,000,000.

A SUMMARY OF THE INCREASE IN FOOD EXPORTS.

The following quotation, summarizing the facts, suggests the substantial value of the ploughing, sowing, reaping, herding, packing and planning to the high achievements of the armies over the sea:—

"In the years before the war the United States sent an average of between 5,000,000 and 6,000,000 tons of food to Europe each year. In the crop

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year of 1918 we doubled that amount, sending 11,820,000 tons, and were prepared in the following year to send between 15,000,000 and 20,000,000 tons. In the midst of these bountiful harvests there were no food cards and the only rationing that was necessary was that prescribed by the individual conscience. . . . Our total contribution in 1918 to the food needs of Europe amounted approximately to a value of \$2,000,000,000."

The province of the Food Administration, then, was vast, requiring an army of workers. Under the wise direction of the able Administrator, state and county administrators, directors and committees co-operated to protect and control foodstuffs of a value reaching about \$300,000,000 a month. As was true in other lines of service, the greater part of this business was carried on by men and women who gave their time and effort freely.

THE PRODUCTION OF FUEL STIMULATED IN VARIOUS WAYS.

Next to food in importance came fuel. For manufacture, for transportation, for heating, it was needed in greater quantities than ever. To keep the munition plants supplied, the cantonments warmed, and to carry the troops from point to point on their long journeys, new demands were added to normal needs. That the conditions in the industry were unsettled at the beginning of the period, that the working force had been reduced by the absorption into the army and into other war industries of many of its men, that among the forces at work there were seeds of dissension due to the many nationalities represented there, must be kept in mind. To overcome these difficulties, the Fuel Administration, under the direction of Dr. Harry A. Garfield, appointed by the President, started at once on a scheme for improving the spirit at the mines and arousing interest in the work that must be done. Through newspapers in their own languages, through addresses and personal appeals, the men were reached. Their response brought forth a sufficient and steady supply of coal ready for distribution.

The next problem was to keep the fuel moving in the directions where it was most needed. There were moments of tension, but the enormous demands were somehow met. The necessity for strict economy in the use of all sorts of fuel was explained to the public, so that extravagance or waste came to be severely frowned upon. And when, in a crucial hour of emergency, an especial restriction was laid upon the people or some part of them, it was for the most part borne with cheerfulness. "Lightless nights," "heatless Mondays" and "gasless Sundays" were observed when the request was made, although the people could not in every case be informed of the war contingency they were helping to adjust. The "heatless days" were ordered in January, 1918, to give opportunity for bunkering at once two hundred and fifty ships in eastern ports whose cargoes were urgently wanted in France. For five days together and on every Monday after, for several weeks, commerce and industry east of the Mississippi were asked to use as little coal as possible. The ships were supplied and sent on their way.

THE UNUSUALLY COLD WINTER OF 1917-18 INCREASES DIFFICULTIES.

Through the unusually long winter of extraordinary cold, though ice and storms impeded with formidable obstacles and dangers, the heavy work was unrelenting. The crisis was safely passed. Not only coal but oil was produced in increasing quantity. Its production in 1918 had been raised to 344,000,000 barrels, and 13,312,000 barrels of gasoline, in that one year, were sent to Europe. It was during the summer that Marshal Foch's cable message called for uninterrupted continuance of the petroleum supply as an absolute necessity for the success of the Allies. Then the Fuel Administration made its request for an immediate saving of gasoline east of the Mississippi by abolishing temporarily the use of motor vehicles on Sundays except in cases of necessity. Out of the 1,000,000 barrels of gasoline estimated to have been saved in this way, about half were sent to the waiting Allies.

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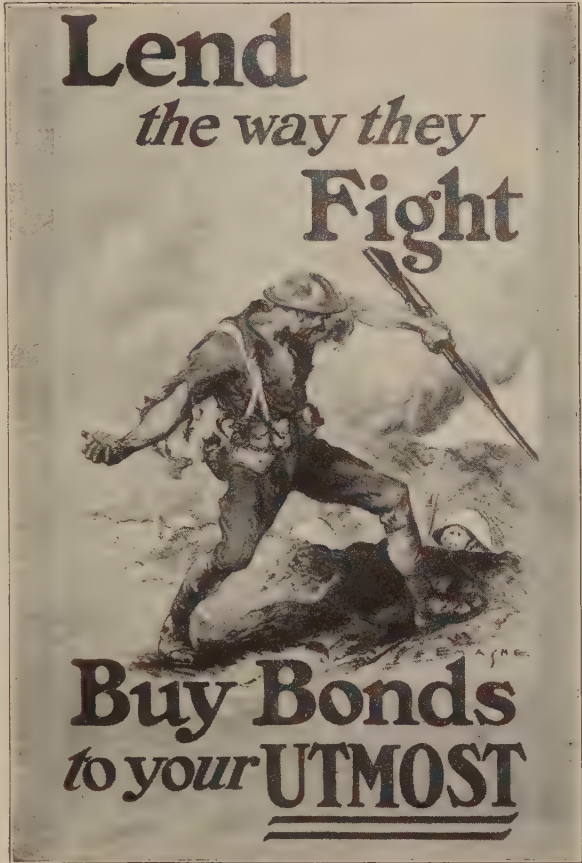
By these regulations and economies, notwithstanding the unprecedented demands, the country was carried through the war period without catastrophe, and at the end was prepared to begin another winter with unusually large stores of coal already at hand.

THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT TAKES CONTROL OF THE RAIL- ROADS.

To keep vital freight—food, fuel and munitions—freely in motion, and provide for the transport of troops to and from cantonments, without unduly interrupting regular traffic, it became necessary, in December, 1917, for the Federal Government, as a wartime measure, to assume full control of the railroads and waterways. This removed the competitive features which were unavoidable under the system of separate ownership and which had remained a bar to national war efficiency even though the railroads had been centralized under a War Board and had been aiming at useful co-operation. Consolidation of offices, elimination of unnecessary trains, regulation of freight routes and rapid transport of perishable freight went far toward clearing up congestion and preventing waste and delay.

Wartime expenses, beyond what was raised by taxation, were met by issuing government loans. The method followed was to send out certificates of indebtedness which were apportioned to the twelve Federal Districts and distributed among the banks in those districts. Advances furnished by the banks were repaid from funds obtained by means of the popular loans which followed at the order of the Secretary of the Treasury. In each Federal District the loan campaign for the sale of bonds was managed by experts working through committees in all the communities involved. There were five such issues of bonds, the last (called the Victory Loan) coming in the spring

of 1919 after the Armistice. Bonds were issued in denominations as low as fifty dollars but even smaller investments were made possible by the issue of War Savings Certificates and Thrift Stamps. The former were discount certificates which at the end of five



A LIBERTY LOAN POSTER BY E. M. ASHE

years would bring a return of the amount invested plus about four per cent yearly interest. For the first series the maturity value was five dollars; for the second, five dollars or one hundred dollars. The stamps were redeemable at any Money Order Post Office at maturity, or at any time ten days after a written demand had been presented. The Thrift Stamps had a face value of twenty-five cents, bore no interest and were not redeemable in cash but could be exchanged for War Saving Certificate Stamps. They made an appeal to children in particular.

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THE SPECTACULAR CAMPAIGNS FOR THE LIBERTY LOANS.

It would hardly be possible to conceive of more arresting or more extensive advertising methods than attended the Liberty Loan drives. In magazines and newspapers prominent pages called attention to the national call. The

and secured subscriptions for millions of dollars. There were processions and mass meetings and personal canvasses. "Four-Minute Men" stood before thousands of audiences every night, in theatre and concert hall and moving-picture house, presenting the facts that would make clear the case; and



MME. GERALDINE FARRAR CAUSES A BLOCK IN TRAFFIC

At this corner, Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street, New York, where surging thousands daily pass and repass, war interests found a constant centre. The plaza of the Library became a national market-place. For the Third Liberty Loan campaign a miniature "Liberty Theatre" was erected at the top of the steps. There famous singers and eloquent speakers assisted in drawing crowds and selling bonds. Mme. Farrar is here singing "The Star Spangled Banner."

best artists used their best ability to picture in posters the need for rallying to the support of the fighting force. Cartoonists and others drew amusing or appealing sketches before the eyes of possible subscribers. Grand opera singers and prominent members of the dramatic stage gave of their art at meetings and dinners or assemblies in the open streets to attract subscriptions from their hearers. Favorite moving-picture actors and actresses made spectacular demonstrations of various sorts, aeroplane flights, etc.,

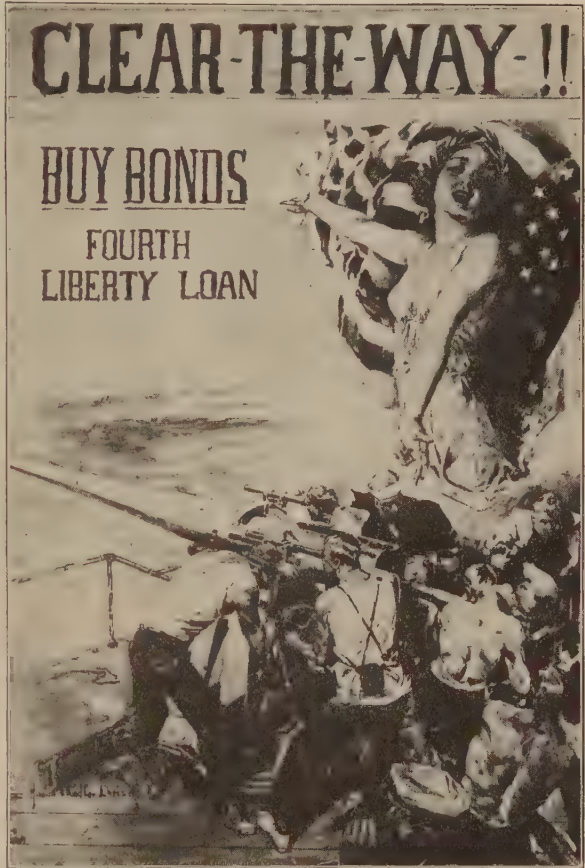
films to awaken interest were flashed upon the screen at moving-picture performances.

Especial features marked each individual loan campaign. On the last day of the First Loan, June 15, 1917, the Liberty Bell in Philadelphia was rung for the first time in a half-century and woke an answering echo in other bells all over the land. During the Second Loan drive, the National League for Woman's Service sold bonds from the Liberty Bank, a small structure modeled after the Sub-Treasury

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Building and erected in Madison Square, New York. On April 26, 1918, during the Third Loan, mothers of soldiers walked in parade carrying flags sown with service stars; "Anzacs" and "Blue Devils" traveled from city to city arousing thrills of enthusiasm; a great ball was rolled from Buffalo to New York. For this loan, too, to which one out of every six persons in the United States subscribed, a flag of honor was awarded to each community that exceeded its quota. In more than 32,000 communities flags were hoisted. When the Fourth Loan was being raised in the fall of 1918, October 12 was everywhere observed as Liberty Day. In New York, Fifth Avenue, gleaming with myriad flags and renamed "Avenue of the Allies," witnessed a great procession headed by President Wilson. At a theatre, in the evening, the President autographed every bond that was sold. Many activities of this drive centred about the Altar of Liberty in Madison Square. Every Federal District oversubscribed the loan, Boston leading with an amount 26.44 per cent above its quota. When we consider how few Americans were accustomed to buy bonds, the results are startling. Indeed, a fuller or more enthusiastic response could hardly have been anticipated by the most sanguine.

From War Savings Stamps the returns were about \$879,000,000. If one could visualize the hosts of small givers that contributed quarter-dollars to help fill up this fund, there would be matter enough for smiles and tears in the philosophies and sacrifices that counted large in young lives, east and west, north and south, wherever the call had penetrated. Few there were who had not helped in some way.



ONE OF HOWARD CHANDLER CHRISTY'S POSTERS

MILLIONS OF THE POPULATION INVEST IN LIBERTY BONDS.

The statistics for the five loans are given in the following table:

	First Loan	Second Loan	Third Loan	Fourth Loan	Fifth Loan (Victory)
	May 15- June 15, 1917	Oct. 1- Oct. 27, 1917	Apr. 6- May 4, 1918	Sept. 28- Oct. 19, 1918	Apr. 21- May 10, 1919
	3½ per cent	4 per cent	4¼ per cent	4¼ per cent	4¾ per cent
Total quotas....	\$2,000,000,000	\$3,000,000,000	\$3,000,000,000	\$6,000,000,000	\$4,500,000,000
Total subscriptions.....	\$3,035,226,850	\$4,617,532,300	\$4,176,516,850	\$6,989,047,000	\$5,249,908,300
Number of subscribers.....	4,500,000	10,020,000	17,000,000	21,000,000	11,803,895
Total allotments.....	\$2,000,000,000	\$3,808,766,150	\$4,176,516,850	\$6,989,047,000	\$5,249,908,300

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THE WORK OF THE COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC INFORMATION.

The task of penetrating into every community so as to carry to it information of affairs both national and European involved a huge educative enterprise that was managed by a Committee on Public Information, started under the direction of a civilian chairman and the Secretaries of State, War, and the Navy. Some of the workings of this committee, which expanded

were most active. Besides "Blue Devils" and "Anzacs," a Belgian regiment and a company of America's own boys came from the front—human testaments of activities over-seas. Advertising clubs, publishers, journalists, artists, authors, actors, managers, college professors and business men combined their efforts to foster loyalty and combat insidious enemy propaganda. Even in foreign countries of neutrals and Allies, within the borders of the



"THE AVENUE OF THE ALLIES"

The Fourth Liberty Loan campaign was marked by many interesting features. Fifth Avenue was at that time rechristened the "Avenue of the Allies," an episode which has been commemorated in verse and painting. On the opening day of the bond sale, September 28, 1918, this parade of the 69th Regiment and the U. S. N. Reserves from Pelham Bay Park Training Station passed down the avenue beneath a colorful array of banners and streamers.

until it embraced thousands upon thousands, we have mentioned in the publicity methods used for the Liberty Loans. The same agencies were employed for War Fund drives, and, regularly, for the general dissemination of facts making for intelligent understanding of the war effort of the nation and of world conditions. Facts, facts, facts were carefully collected; pictured in newspapers; discussed in pamphlets which were widely scattered; shown in moving pictures; forcibly described by speakers on public platforms or, more intimately, among small groups in factories and workrooms. In carrying out this last-mentioned part of the programme, the "Four-Minute Men"

foes themselves, pictures and literature were introduced as extensively as might be to overcome the false impressions planted by German propagandists. The actual results of such labors cannot be calculated; but there is no question that the Committee on Public Information was a mighty moral force working upon the spirits of men.

RELIEF AND WELFARE ORGANIZATIONS GENEROUSLY SUPPORTED.

We have said earlier that the people of the United States were learning the meaning of bountiful giving. As month after month brought its appeals for funds to support the welfare work abroad and at home, each organization

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received all that it asked and more. Not to multiply figures, let us take the Red Cross drives as typical. Asking for \$100,000,000 in June, 1917, the association received \$115,000,000. The following May, another request for \$100,000,000, brought a response of \$176,000,000. It is estimated that for the whole period of the United States in the war, the total contribution of the people to the Red Cross was \$325,000,000 in actual money, and manufactured

workers going hither and thither, day and night, in hospitals and offices, on highways and in byways. Friendly hands were ready with food or drink at railway stations or piers when troops were passing. The refreshments and the smiles of the dispensers were tokens of cheer for many a boy. In the camps the Hostess Houses with their lady hostesses, and in the towns the can-tees with their friendly attendants formed centres of hospitality and home-



BATTLE TANKS INVADING FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK

In the years of war and the months following, the Library's marble lions faced a variety of scenes. Sovereigns, diplomats and commanders passed, amid cheers of acclaim. "Anzacs," "Blue Devils," Belgian soldiers and hosts of American "doughboys" brought to crowds of spectators laughter and tears and deep, deep thoughts. Cannon, soup-kitchens, machine-guns, and—most spectacular of all—the tanks rolled by. Here are two monsters, veterans of battle, followed by French whippets, leading the war pageant of the Victory Liberty Loan in the spring of 1919. This pageant reviewed the war activities of the country.

products whose value was about \$60,000,000. The other welfare agencies, as we have mentioned, conducted separate campaigns from time to time. Finally, for the sake of economy and greater efficiency, it was decided to make one great sweeping associated drive for funds to be divided among the seven principal organizations, with \$170,000,000 as a goal. Beginning on the very day that the Armistice was signed, a week later the subscription had rolled up to \$203,179,000.

So much for what can be computed in definite numbers! For the rest, the story can never be fully told of the tireless energy expended by individual

liness whose influence was invaluable. Everywhere private homes were thrown open for the entertainment of lads from camp or hospital. For these the War Camp Community Service, aided by many volunteers, furnished special care and recreation.

THE WAR WORK OF WOMEN IMMENSELY VALUABLE.

A considerable number of women found expression for their patriotism by entering war manufacturing plants. Some took the places of men in other occupations. Others belonged to the Land Army, living in camps and laboring on farms. Boys and girls, well-organized for usefulness, took a

not-inconsiderable part in collecting funds, gathering up books for the soldiers' and sailors' libraries admirably managed by the American Library Association, and in many other kinds of service. Mothers and fathers, wives, sisters and brothers, having given up their best and dearest, offered their own strength and thought and spirit to build a supporting wall behind the armies of sons, husbands and brothers "over there." Business, motor driving, clerical work, cooking, dish-washing,—whatever the form of the service undertaken for love of country and in the name of humanity, it was part of the one great task. May we not feel that the sweat and the weariness of the laborer in field, kitchen, office or warehouse, like the sweat and exhaustion of the man in the trench (though in a less degree) were symbols of devotion to the one world-embracing cause?

During the earlier days of the nation's war activity, the chief agent of the Council for National Defense reported: "I can testify that the American people are getting hold of essential facts with astonishing rapidity, and that it is like taking a thermometer out of the cellar into the sunlight to travel through the land and observe the rise of our civilian morale." Not only great general movements such as manufacturing, ship-building and agricultural expansion, but the small personal efforts of the poor and humble and remote, as well, came under his eye. None were left out of the composite impression. Children and grandchildren of immigrants vied with those of the oldest American ancestry. Jews and Christians stood side by side. It must be remembered, indeed, that the Jewish population of the country furnished many more than its quota of soldiers for the army and gave lavishly of its means. The emotional nature of

the southern Negro and the stolid, determined mind of the Indian on the plains were stirred, each in its own way, to energetic effort. Both were creditably represented in the Army and both took active part in the work at home. The American Indians, reports show, sent into military service nearly one-fifth of the total number of males of military age,—eighty-five per cent, volunteers. Their record was one of efficiency and extreme earnestness. In addition, the Indians subscribed to the first three Liberty Loans an amount of \$13,000,000, a proportion of between thirty and forty dollars per capita.

THE TIDE WHICH FLOWED ALONG "THE AVENUE OF THE ALLIES."

Washington has been aptly represented as the heart of the national war organism. There were the vast central executive forces that regulated and supplied all the great systems leading out in every direction to the ends of the land. In the year and a half of accelerated functioning, the population of the hitherto quiet city was increased by about one-third and administrative buildings multiplied as if by magic. If Washington was the heart, New York may be thought of as having been "the very pulse of the machine." Through it the throbbing elements of life passed, caught together in one flood before flowing away into distant reaches to fulfil their ultimate destiny. And, there, Fifth Avenue was the central channel where the pulsing never ceased. In it was reached the high tide of the nation's hopes and efforts. In it were brought together the ends of the earth. May those days be never forgotten,—“Days when, as Avenue of the Allies, This was the street that best served to express

The country's soul. The magic lingers yet

Of that vast patriotic enterprise.”



A Circulating Library at the Front

CHAPTER LXXIII

Relief and Welfare Organizations

BRIEF MENTION OF THE ORGANIZATIONS WHICH MINISTERED TO THE MORAL, MENTAL AND PHYSICAL WELFARE OF THE SOLDIERS

THOUGH the main energies of the contending nations during the War were devoted to destruction, agencies for the relief of physical suffering, and for the spiritual, moral, social and physical welfare of individuals affected by the war were more numerous and more active than in any previous contest. In addition to the chaplains and the medical and sanitary corps, all of which belonged to the armies themselves, a host of civilians, both men and women, were engaged in relieving suffering, furnishing moral and material aid, and providing amusement and instruction for the soldiers and civilians engaged in war work, or for the relatives of soldiers.

THE QUESTION OF MORALE RECOGNIZED AS IMPORTANT.

In a war fought not by professional soldiers, but by the manhood of the nations, it may be easily seen that the attitude of the men toward the cause for which they were called upon to fight was all-important. All of the intangible things which constitute what is called morale (though the word should properly be spelled without the final letter) were important, and the military leaders eagerly welcomed all those agencies which could help to maintain the pride, confidence and

cheerfulness of the soldiers under their dangers and hardships.

In the British and American armies the work of the chaplains was considered extremely important, and the number appointed as a part of the establishment was greatly increased. So far as possible the difficulties in their way were removed and Catholic, Protestant and Jewish chaplains were to be found working among the soldiers not only in the camps but in the actual front line trenches. Among the Canadian chaplains also were represented all denominations having considerable strength in the Dominion. The Australians in addition to the above appointed a considerable number of Salvation Army officers as chaplains. The French Army did not provide chaplains but ministers of religion of military age served in the lines with the laity, and there were many hundreds of them.

Many of these chaplains placed themselves in positions of the greatest danger. Some were accustomed to accompany the men whenever an assault was made. They helped to carry the wounded back of the lines, comforted those who needed their ministrations, and buried the dead. While all held regular services when-

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ever practicable, perhaps the greater part of their work was done with men individually. They made an unusual record and dozens received decorations from one or another of the governments.

THE RED CROSS THE MOST IMPORTANT RELIEF ORGANIZATION,

The most important relief organization was the Red Cross which had been at the front and behind the lines

permitted to work in all the belligerent countries. Naturally the work of the American Red Cross was greater than that of any other single country, and it was permitted to continue work in all countries after the United States entered the war.

THE WORK OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS.

On May 10, 1917, a War Council of seven members, with Henry P. Davi-



CHAPLAIN ROLLINS, TWENTY-SIXTH DIVISION, CONDUCTING COMMUNION SERVICE

in all wars since its organization. An international organization, its representatives were found in every country. The total work can not be estimated now. Not until histories of what was done in every separate country are written will it be possible to measure definitely the whole accomplishment of the organization in the war. The work of the Red Cross has been mentioned in several other chapters of the work. It is fitting, however, that special mention of the organizations on this side of the Atlantic be given.

As the United States was not at war during the first three years it was

son as Chairman, was appointed by President Wilson in the capacity of President of the Red Cross. From the headquarters at Washington nationwide activities were directed. A pre-war membership of about 500,000 swelled rapidly until, including the Junior organizations, it embraced approximately 31,000,000. Active workers numbered over 8,000,000.

After the collection of the first war fund of something more than \$100,000,000, in June, 1917, commissions were sent out to the European countries involved in the war. Arrangements and appropriations were made for relief work in all of these countries

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among civilians and prisoners as well as fighting forces. Most important of all was the work in France for which more than nine thousand persons were enrolled. Two departments, one for Military Affairs and one for Civil Affairs, were established. The former, besides sustaining military and convalescent hospitals, dispensaries and diet kitchens, distributing hundreds of

THE AMERICAN RED CROSS WORKED IN TWENTY-FIVE COUNTRIES.

In each country the service was adapted to the particular need and the peculiar circumstances. For example, in Italy, even before the permanent commission was installed, a great necessity for help arose when the Austrian invasion of October, 1917, sent hosts of villagers from their homes in hasty,



FATHER KELLY, ONE OF THE CHAPLAINS OF THE TWENTY-SEVENTH DIVISION

U. S. Official

thousands of dressings weekly and providing a supply service for several thousand hospitals, maintained canteens at the front, at railroad junctions and in Paris. Many millions of soldiers were served with refreshments at these centres where the workers were American men and women. The civilian relief department took part in efforts for the care of refugees, reconstruction measures in devastated areas, rescue of populations in time of attack, assistance for the families of French soldiers, especial welfare of children, etc. At the time of frequent air raids, day-and-night service for quick response to alarms was undertaken in several cities.

terrified flight. From France experienced American Red Cross workers rushed to relieve some of the distress in this emergency. Hurrying forward ambulances, soup-kitchens and carloads of supplies, these men and women heartily labored hand in hand with the Italian Government and the native relief organizations to save helpless thousands. Later, American ambulances joined those of the Italian corps and the British Red Cross (which had from the first been doing valiant service there) on the Austro-Italian front.

In Belgium, while attention was given to improving the lot of the Belgian soldiers, the principal effort was directed toward helping to care for the

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feeble and the young and to rescue them from danger. Schools and colonies for children received the largest share. In Russia, in the Balkan countries, in Palestine,—in twenty-five foreign lands, all told—the American Red Cross has done earnest and devoted work for sick and wounded, helpless and famished humanity.

aid where needed, explain to them the best methods of meeting some of their problems, fit into the individual case the individual solution. The Bureau of Information kept open ways of communication between the families at home and the men in camps or on the field. Often much anxiety and suffering were prevented by this means. The



AN IMPROMPTU PARTY

Change and recreation are perhaps more necessary to aviators than to other soldiers in the war because of their essentially nerve-racking work. Here is an impromptu party at a Red Cross rest room. The music was picked up on the spur of the moment and the canteen girls are invited to join. Courtesy of the Red Cross

BOTH FIELD AND HOME SERVICE DID VALUABLE WORK.

Field Service covered many ministrations to the welfare and comfort of soldiers and sailors. They received not only garments and necessary articles but things providing amusement and entertainment—games, books and magazines, tobacco and musical instruments. The whole, the sick and the convalescent were looked after.

Home Service had too many branches of usefulness to be fully dealt with in such brief space. The Civilian Relief Department sought in every way possible to bring “wise and hopeful service to soldiers’ families”—to help them to self-support, give them legal

Canteen Service looked after the comfort of men during their transportation to and from camps. Fifty-five thousand women workers were engaged in feeding and cheering the troops on their journeys. The Motor Service, whose uniformed volunteer drivers gave no less than sixteen hours a week, each, was occupied in carrying men and supplies to and fro, meeting trains, moving wounded, hurrying officers to places of appointment, in fact on countless errands.

THE GREAT ARMY OF TRAINED RED CROSS NURSES.

The primary and central department, of course, was that of Nursing. With Miss Jane A. Delano as director-



RED CROSS WORKERS FROM CHINATOWN

The Red Cross knows no barriers of creed or race, age or sex. In this picture are shown some of the little workers of Chinatown. They knitted sweaters and the more difficult garments, and their work was perhaps the most exquisitely painstaking that the Red Cross received.

Courtesy of Red Cross



SAVED FROM THE JUGGERNAUT OF WAR

Refugee children of Nancy who have been transferred across France to Dinard, Brittany, there to be educated under French teachers. The American Red Cross contributed food, clothing and medical care to the little colony. Captain Moore and American Red Cross Nurses are standing in the right foreground. International Film Service

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general, the Red Cross nurses met their great opportunity for heroic, inestimable service most nobly, wherever they were needed. Nearly 24,000 were enrolled for this work. Besides, there were numbers of supplementary untrained nurses ready to aid. Sanitary improvement, care of public health, instruction and advice in dietetics, training for First Aid—none of these fields was neglected.

and supplies to the American Red Cross more than \$400,000,000. No value can be placed upon the contributions of service which have been given without stint and oftentimes at great sacrifice by millions of our people."

THE WELFARE ORGANIZATIONS AND THEIR METHODS.

Coming to the organizations with a purpose less purely spiritual than that of the chaplains, and not so distinctly



WHITE-ROBED MESSENGERS OF MERCY

Of all the memorable pageants that have swept along the metropolitan thoroughfare between sympathetic throngs, none perhaps was ever much more impressive than this of long white lines of Red Cross nurses and workers.

The activities of the Woman's Bureau, preparing, packing and transmitting the supplies, has been mentioned elsewhere. Of the women all over the country President Wilson said they were "busy every night and every day doing the work of the Red Cross, busy with a great eagerness to find out the most serviceable thing to do, busy with a forgetfulness of all the old frivolities of their social relationships, ready to curtail the duties of the household in order that they may contribute to this common work."

In his statement upon retiring from the chairmanship of the War Council, Mr. Davison announced: "During the past nearly twenty-one months the American people have given in cash

designed to relieve suffering as that of the Red Cross, we have a number of so-called welfare organizations. All of these did good work at first in the training camps and later abroad as well. In the United States they were officially recognized and at first functioned through the Commission on Training Camp Activities.

THE COMMISSION ON TRAINING CAMP ACTIVITIES.

In April, 1917, Secretary Baker appointed a Commission on Training Camp Activities under the chairmanship of Raymond B. Fosdick. Three months' later Secretary Daniels appointed a similar Commission for the Navy under the same chairman. The two-fold task of the Commission was

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to supply the normal things of life to nearly a million and a half young men in training camps, and to keep the environs of the camps clean and wholesome.

In these two activities the Commission employed to a great extent the machinery of organization and agencies hitherto interested along such lines, and except where necessary did not create new machinery. To the Y. M. C. A., the K. of C., and later the Jewish Welfare Board, the Commission looked to supply a large share of the club life and entertainment. Other agencies recognized were the Y. W. C. A., the American Library Association, the Salvation Army, and the War Camp Community Service. Something will be said of each in turn.

THEATRICAL AND MUSICAL ENTERTAINMENTS PROVIDED.

In addition the Commission built Liberty Theatres in 34 camps, equipped with all necessary paraphernalia and placed them under the charge of resident managers. A trifling charge was made and many of the foremost actors and actresses of the country volunteered their services. Marc Klaw, of Klaw and Erlanger, acted as chairman of a committee of organization and booking. Besides the regular performances, dramatic directors in every camp encouraged local talent so that the men when they went overseas would be equipped with the means of self-entertainment.

Community-singing was also developed as a definite aid in promoting morale and *esprit de corps*. In every army camp and naval station, the commission placed a song-leader, and wonderful results were obtained. A National Committee on Army and Navy Music was appointed and "Songs of the Soldiers and Sailors" was compiled. The chorus singing was surprisingly good and thrilled all those who heard it at the camps.

THE WORK OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

To the American Library Association the Commission instinctively turned for an adequate supply of books and reading facilities for the troops. Response was prompt and generous. Even before the Government's appeal the Association had already organized in June to provide library buildings in



JAPANESE RED CROSS NURSES IN FRANCE

the chief cantonments. Under Dr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, the work was quickly put through. By January, 1918, most of the buildings in the 32 chief cantonments had been erected. They were of wood, about a hundred feet long and forty feet wide, well suited to their purpose, and capable of containing from 15,000 to 30,000 volumes on every sort of subject. In addition to the libraries housed in separate buildings the Association allowed the other organizations to have a branch of the nearest camp library, with anywhere

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from 500 to 2000 books. Small camps and posts, naval and marine stations and vessels were supplied with libraries, hospitals and Red Cross houses provided with books. Particular attention was given to the hospitals; special librarians were appointed in every camp as well as in base and debarkation hospitals.

Library privileges were absolutely free. Above every case of books was a card:

"These books come to us overseas from home. To read them is a privilege. To restore them promptly unabused is a duty.

(signed) John J. Pershing."

Besides the 50 tons space allowed on



A SARDINIAN WELCOME FOR THE RED CROSS COMMISSION

In the town of Santadi, in Sardinia, this picturesque group, composed mostly of mothers, sisters, wives and children of men who were away at the front, gathered to greet the members of the American Red Cross Commission.

Courtesy Red Cross Magazine

THE DISTRIBUTION OF BOOKS TO THE SOLDIERS.

With the sailing of the troops overseas, the work was extended. Dr. M. L. Raney, Librarian of Johns Hopkins University, went over and arranged with Admiral Sims for library service to the navy in its bases, aviation fields, mine-sweeping bases and battleships. Visiting Army Headquarters Dr. Raney then succeeded in obtaining official endorsement of his plan by General Pershing, who allotted 50 ship tons per month free cargo for the books, and added the duty of receiving the books to the work of the Quartermaster Corps of the A. E. F. A warehouse was promptly built at one of the great debarkation ports, and headquarters set up in Paris.

each transport, a collection for the use of the men on the voyage was placed in charge of the Y. M. C. A. Secretaries.

To organize the social and recreational life of the communities adjacent to the training camps the Commission enlisted the services of the Playground and Recreation Association of America. The purpose was to enlist the interest of the communities in the young men in camp, and to co-ordinate the social organizations of the community with the camps.

ORGANIZED ATHLETICS IN EVERY CAMP ESTABLISHED IMMEDIATELY.

Within the camps the Commission appointed sport-directors and boxing instructors and built up organized athletics so that every man had the

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opportunity of some special kind in his leisure time. Boxing was especially encouraged not only for its excellence as a sport but for its intimate connection with bayonet fighting. Funds for various sporting equipment were eventually partially subscribed by the government and partly by voluntary subscription.

Suppressive work in dealing with vicious conditions was handled by direct representatives of the Commission assisted by such organizations as the Committee of Fourteen of New York, the Watch and Ward Society of New England, the American Social Hygiene Association. The special problem arising from the presence of young girls in the vicinity of the camps was handled by the Y. W. C. A. and a Committee on Protective Work attached to the Commission. Within a short time this work showed remarkable results: a large number of cities abolished their red light districts, and remodeled their laws and administrative machinery for dealing with prostitution and the liquor traffic.

THE IMPORTANT WORK OF THE Y. W. C. A. AMONG WOMEN.

Much was done to serve the soldiers' families who visited the camps in the establishment of hostess houses by the Y. W. C. A. Provided with attractive sitting and rest-rooms and a cafeteria, they furnished a place where the fighting men might meet their women-folk who visited them in camp.

War conditions entailed abnormal surroundings for women, as for men. In the munition cantonments and factories numbers of them were as completely robbed of their background of social life as were the soldiers in training camps, and for their relief the Y. W. C. A. provided recreation buildings with rest-rooms, gymnasias, cafeterias, etc. In this respect, moreover, the work for colored women was the same as for the white. The Y. W. C. A. was also responsible for the many young women, telephone operators, stenographers and the like, serving with the armies or with other welfare organizations abroad, and for women engaged in French war industries.

THE SALVATION ARMY THE MOST POPULAR ORGANIZATION.

The military form of its organization was a particular advantage to the Salvation Army in taking up its duties at the front. With a National War Board for direction of its war activities, operating from headquarters in New York and Chicago, it co-operated with all the other agencies for securing the welfare of the forces on sea and on land. Forty-four ambulances were provided and accepted by the Government; and several hundred tons of supplies were shipped to Europe every month. At no time was there a large force of American Salvation Army workers overseas—less than two hundred—but their influence there as well as on this side of the sea was, nevertheless, far-reaching and most cheering. At debarkation points, in camps and hospitals, and under fire at the front, they shared hardship and danger so as to help supply the men with home comforts and attentions. Paper and envelopes, post-cards, chocolate, fruit and other commodities were distributed; money, telegrams and other messages were transmitted to families of soldiers; but, most welcome in some ways, and most distinctive, were the doughnuts and apple-pies cooked under the most unpromising conditions by Salvation Lasses and supplied, fresh and toothsome, to hungry Yankee lads—a homely service that was not forgotten. Sometimes a metal wheelbarrow served as a stove. Sometimes a German field-kitchen was made to do duty for its captors. Always the sight was welcomed with cheers.

The overseas work was under the leadership of Lieut. Col. W. S. Barker. At home, in addition to preparing numbers of garments, comfort kits, etc., to be distributed by the Red Cross or otherwise, the Salvation Army set up huts and hostels where they welcomed and cared for soldiers and sailors en route, furnishing them with club-life and arranging sight-seeing trips, as well as providing them with food and shelter. One particular service was that of supplying civilian clothing to demobilized troops.

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WAR CAMP COMMUNITY SERVICE.

Supplementary to the Training Camp Activities and undertaken at the request of the Commissions, the War Camp Community Service, under the control of the Playground and Recreation Association of America, worked outside the camps for the protection and entertainment of sol-



SALVATION ARMY GIRLS DISTRIBUTING COFFEE AND DOUGHNUTS

diers and sailors on leave. In a great number of cities, centres of this organization were established where the men might be provided with comfortable sleeping quarters, food at reasonable prices, information bureaus, clubroom advantages and amusements. Sight-seeing tours, visits to ball games, theatre parties, and social entertainment in private homes were arranged to keep them interested and make them feel welcome. The work, which was very largely carried on by volunteers, met hearty co-operation in the com-

munities frequented by soldiers from the camps and sailors on shore leave. Later, it was most valuable in helping to relieve the tedium of long convalescence for those in the hospitals while recovering from illness or wounds.

JEWISH WELFARE BOARD.

For the especial care of men of the Jewish faith the Jewish Welfare Board, of which the late Colonel Harry Cutler was chairman, made ample provision. In the camps fifty buildings offered opportunities for rest, for reading and writing, and for recreation. Auditoriums for lectures, concerts and theatrical performances made for relaxation and refreshment. Classes were organized for the study of various subjects. All the activities in training-station, camp, or cantonment, were under the direction of trained workers. In cities, branch organizations operated community centres, providing comfortable and cheery surroundings for Jewish soldiers and sailors who were sojourning there. In all the Board had about 600 workers in uniform besides many volunteers for the whole or a part of their time, and erected fifty huts in France or in the occupied sections of Germany. The privileges of these were offered to all soldiers regardless of creed, and full advantage was taken of the offer. No organization was more useful and none was better managed.

The most prominent, however, of all the welfare organizations were the Y. M. C. A. and the Knights of Columbus. Their work was so large and embodied so many fields that more extended notice must be given.

The experience of Jewish societies in welfare work among their co-religionists in times of peace made the workers of the Jewish Welfare Board especially efficient in work with the soldiers. Their badge was the Star of David.

The National Catholic War Council

By MICHAEL WILLIAMS

Editor National Catholic War Council Bulletin

ONLY a brief review of the main features of the patriotic activities and war relief work of the Catholics of the United States is possible within the limits of a single chapter; nevertheless, because of the well organized nature of that work, the whole subject may be covered in a general way without detriment to the proper appreciation of the chief factor of the Catholic war effort, namely, the harmony of that effort with the cause for which the nation fought and which it triumphantly vindicated.

First, however, in order to gain a truthful comprehension of the spirit in which the Catholic Church leaders, their clergy, and the laity accomplished their portion of the war work of the nation, it is essential to grasp the fact that a prompt and determined readiness to face and deal with their duties as citizens in time of war had been inculcated in Catholics with all the authority and by means of all the teaching agencies of the Church ever since the birth of the United States of America as a nation.

THE ACTION OF THE ARCHBISHOPS TAKEN IN WASHINGTON.

Twelve days after the declaration of war, on April 18, 1917, the Archbishops of the Catholic Church in the United States, assembled for their annual meeting at the Catholic University in Washington, and sent a letter to President Wilson from which the following extracts are taken:

"Standing firmly upon our solid Catholic tradition and history, from the very foundation of this nation, we affirm in this hour of stress and trial our most sacred and sincere loyalty and patriotism toward our country, our government, and our flag.

"Acknowledging gladly the gratitude that we have always felt for the protection of our spiritual liberty and the freedom of our Catholic institutions, under the flag, we pledge our devotion and our strength in the main-

tenance of our country's glorious leadership, in these possessions and principles which have been America's proudest boast.

"Inspired neither by hate nor fear, but by the holy sentiments of truest patriotic fervor and zeal, we stand ready, we and all the flock committed to our keeping, to co-operate in every way possible with our President and our national government, to the end that the great and holy cause of liberty may triumph and that our beloved country may emerge from this hour of test stronger and nobler than ever."

The President in his reply to Cardinal Gibbons said: "The very remarkable resolutions unanimously adopted by the Archbishops of the United States at their annual meeting in the Catholic University on April eighteenth last, a copy of which you were kind enough to send me, warms my heart and makes me very proud indeed that men of such large influence should act in so large a sense of patriotism and so admirable a spirit of devotion to our common country."

THE PROVED VALUE OF THE PLEDGE OF LOYALTY.

Spontaneously, and as a matter of inevitable action springing from principles out of which no less worthy fruits could issue, one great and powerful part of the population, the seventeen millions of Catholics, were thus committed by their leaders to the cause of their country; the first of the religious bodies of the land to volunteer for service.

A pledge given in all good faith may yet remain unfulfilled, or at least but partly accomplished. What the Catholic pledge actually amounted to was authoritatively stated two years after the Great War had been triumphantly brought to a close when the Archbishops and Bishops, assembled in conference at the Catholic University of America, in Washington, for the first time since the Third Plenary

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Council in 1884, issued a Pastoral Letter to their clergy and faithful people, in which they said:

"The traditional patriotism of our Catholic people has been amply demonstrated in the day of their country's trial and we look with pride upon the record which proves as no mere protes-

stances which war inevitably brings, they acted as priests.

"The account of our men in the service adds a new page to the record of Catholic loyalty. It is what we expected and what they took for granted. But it has a significance that will be fairly appreciated when normal conditions return. To many assertions it answers with one plain fact."

SOME OF THE DIFFICULTIES WHICH WERE OVERCOME.

The complex and unprecedented problems of war relief and civic co-operation with the government which characterized the Great War, confronted Catholics with difficulties of an especial kind. The doing of their duties as individuals, and as citizens, was not the problem. Although forming only one-fifth part of the population at most (and probably only about one-sixth part), the Catholics contributed about one-quarter of the armed forces of the United States. Over one million Catholics were in the Army and the Navy. But there was lacking a mechanism for their united national co-operation, as Catholics, with the various governmental agencies charged with the conduct of the war, and of war relief.

The Knights of Columbus had laid down lines of national service before the war which provided channels for Catholic activity when the great war came. When the American troops were summoned to the Mexican border, the Knights of Columbus had begun the work of building recreational halls that would serve as well for religious services in the various camps, and it was felt that such a civic co-operation promoted effectively the physical morale and the spiritual welfare of the troops.

THE KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS THE FIRST RECOGNIZED AGENCY.

With the opening of the world war the National Commission on Training Camp Activities took up on behalf of the National Government the work of providing centres in all camps, both at home and abroad, for the enlisted men. The Knights of Columbus volunteered the services of their Order, and that



ARCHBISHOP PATRICK J. HAYES

Archbishop Hayes of the Diocese of New York was made Chaplain Bishop by the Pope and given jurisdiction over all Catholic Chaplains with the Army of the United States. © C. Smith Gardner

tation could prove the devotion of American Catholics to the cause of American freedom."

Continuing, the Pastoral Letter outlines the means by which the high idealism and spiritual inspiration of the call to the Catholics on the part of their leaders were translated into terms of action.

"To our Chaplains especially we give the credit that is their due for the faithful performance of their obligations. In the midst of danger and difficulty, under the new and trying circum-

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organization was named as one of the governmental agencies for the work.

In the General Convention of Catholics of the United States—held in Washington, August 12, 1917, for the purpose of considering how organized Catholics might best help the Government win the war—it was unanimously resolved that the Knights of Columbus should be selected as the representative Catholic body to continue the special work they had undertaken. Delegates from most of the dioceses of the United States, from forty National Catholic organizations and representatives of the Catholic Press Association, also expressed unanimously their opinion that the Catholics of the United States should create a national organization to study, co-ordinate, unify, and put in operation all Catholic activities incidental to the war.

The Catholic body in this respect was like the National Government, and like other religious denominations. The Government showed how to answer the problem by creating the National Commission on Training Camp Activities of the Army and Navy. This Commission successfully co-ordinated the heads and representatives of many social and welfare organizations. The Protestant religious bodies followed this example by forming "The War Time Commission of the Federal Council of Churches," in which all the Protestant bodies are included, even the Unitarians and Universalists. The Jewish body solved their problem by establishing the Jewish Welfare Board. The Catholics gave their answer in the

National Catholic War Council. It was through the National Catholic War Council that the proper and authoritative direction of all the multi-form activities of Catholics was accomplished.



TWO PRINCES OF THE CHURCH

Cardinal Mercier, Archbishop of Malines, Belgium, and Cardinal Gibbons, Archbishop of Baltimore. Cardinal Mercier came to the United States to thank the people in person for the help extended to his country in time of stress. Cardinal Gibbons has long been one of the best-loved citizens of Baltimore.

THE FUNCTIONS OF THE NATIONAL CATHOLIC WAR COUNCIL.

The National Catholic War Council was intended not to control, but to direct; not to hinder or minimize, but to co-ordinate, to promote, and to inspire; not to rule in a bureaucratic fashion, but to facilitate, to speed up, and to suggest new means of accomplishing Catholic national action as the need for it should arise. Therefore, it had to embrace the entire organization of the Catholic Church.

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Hence, the National Catholic War Council was composed first of the fourteen archbishops, or metropolitans, as they are called in the United States. The extent of territory covered by their sees will be evident from the following enumeration: James Cardinal Gibbons, Archbishop of Baltimore; John Cardinal Farley (deceased), Archbishop of New York; William Cardinal O'Connell, Archbishop of Boston; Most Rev. John Ireland (deceased), Archbishop of St. Paul; Most Rev. James J. Keane, Archbishop of Dubuque; Most Rev. Alexander Christie, Archbishop of Portland; Most Rev. John J. Glennon, Archbishop of St. Louis; Most. Rev. Sebastian G. Messmer, Archbishop of Milwaukee; Most Rev. Henry Moeller, Archbishop of Cincinnati; Most. Rev. John B. Pitaval, Archbishop of Santa Fe; Most Rev. John W. Shaw, Archbishop of New Orleans; Most Rev. Dennis J. Dougherty, Archbishop of Philadelphia; Most. Rev. Edward J. Hanna, Archbishop of San Francisco; Most Rev. George W. Mundelein, Archbishop of Chicago. With the direct heavy burdens of their own sees, and the great distances to be covered for a common meeting, it was impossible for this body to direct war work. Consequently they appointed, with power to act, an administrative committee of four bishops: Rt. Rev. Peter J. Muldoon of Rockford, Illinois; Rt. Rev. Joseph Schrembs of Toledo, Ohio; Rt. Rev. Patrick J. Hayes, of New York, and Rt. Rev. William T. Russell of Charleston, South Carolina. It was the office of this body to be a high court of general control and direction. All four of these bishops had also the work of their immediate dioceses to do, and necessarily their supervision of such a labor as national war relief, was of a general character.

The immediate supervision and direction of war relief work, therefore, was left to two sub-committees; the Committee of the Knights of Columbus, which had for its field all activities within the camps, including the direction of camp secretaries, and of overseas work; and the Committee on Spe-

cial War Activities which, to put it briefly and by way of exclusion, had for its field all that is not included in the work of the Knights of Columbus. The funds of the Knights of Columbus, and the expenditure of them, were put under the control of that organization. And the same may be said of those of the Committee on Special War Activities. It will be seen, that both committees were left to do their independent work and carry on their own administration. Both were held responsible by a higher authority, the Administrative Committee, and with this committee both met at intervals for conferences and survey of the entire work through an advisory board, composed of the Administrative Committee, six representatives of the Knights of Columbus, and six of the Committee on Special War Activities.

THE RELATION OF THE COMMITTEE TO THE GOVERNMENT.

The Committee on Special War Activities was further and necessarily connected with Governmental activities owing to the fact that its Chairman had been appointed as the Catholic representative on the Committee of Six. This Committee was interdenominational and was composed of the following: The Rev. John J. Burke, of the National Catholic War Council, Chairman; Mr. John R. Mott, of the Young Men's Christian Association; Bishop James De Wolf Perry, of the Episcopal War Time Commission; Dr. William Adams Brown, D.D., and Dr. Robert E. Speer, of the Federated Council of Churches; and Colonel Harry Cutler, of the Jewish Welfare Board. This Committee was an advisory committee to the Secretary of War and to the Commission on Training Camp Activities.

In August, 1918, the Commission on Training Camp Activities decided to recognize the National Catholic War Council as an official agent of the Government in war welfare work. This did not mean the withdrawal of the official recognition already extended to the Knights of Columbus nor was it intended as any unfavorable criticism of the work of the latter,

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but the Government decided—in the words of Secretary Baker—“to recognize not only the child, but the parent of the child.”

The National Catholic War Council was at liberty to appoint its agents in war welfare work and this it did—renaming the two agencies that it had employed from the beginning of its existence—the Committee on Knights

HOW THE ACTIVITY OF LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS WAS CO-ORDINATED.

A Committee on Men's Activities, a sub-committee of the above, was one of the seven principal branches which canalized the executive energy of the main committee. The Committee on Men's Organizations dealt with all Catholic men's organizations, other than the Knights of Columbus, through-



SOLDIERS OUTSIDE A KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS HUT

The Knights of Columbus had many huts in the war zone, where all soldiers were cordially welcomed by the secretaries and other helpers. Thousands of pounds of tobacco, chocolate, candy, and other small luxuries were distributed at these centres. Inside the huts there were fire and light, seats and tables provided with writing materials. Entertainments of various sorts were also given.

of Columbus Activities and the Committee on Special War Activities.

With what thoroughness all fields were covered may be seen from the following survey of the Committee on Special War Activities. The committee was composed of the Rev. John J. Burke, C.S.P., chairman; Rt. Rev. Monsignor H. T. Drumgoole; Rt. Rev. Monsignor M. J. Splaine; Rt. Rev. Monsignor Edward A. Kelly; Rev. William J. Kerby; John G. Agar, and Michael J. Slattery, executive secretary. It goes without saying that every member of the committee was deeply interested.

out the country. How necessary this work of co-ordination was may be seen from the fact that there are nine thousand seven hundred and fourteen Catholic men's associations in the United States. All of them in greater or less degree were employed in war work. The Committee on Men's Activities informed itself as to what each organization was doing; also what it was best fitted to do; and armed with this knowledge it was able to direct each organization as to the most needed work in its own community. In this way the Catholic clubs throughout the country were utilized for the enter-

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tainment and repose of the soldiers and sailors, and the members of the various local organizations contributed their personal services.

They were instructed how to co-operate with the local branches of the Fosdick Commission; how to better, when necessary, the moral conditions of the camps in their neighborhood; how to provide entertainment under

Christmas Red Cross Membership Drive received the enthusiastic support of the Catholic Church throughout the country."

THE ENERGY AND ZEAL OF CATHOLIC WOMEN ALSO ORGANIZED.

What has been said of the work of the Committee on Men's Organizations applies as well to the work of the Committee on Women's Activities.



IN THE BASILICA AT DOMREMY-LA-PUCELLE

In modern times a basilica has been erected on a hill near Domremy where Joan of Arc is said first to have heard the voices telling her of the strange mission she was to perform. Everything connected with the Maid of Orleans was intensely interesting to the American soldiers who were stationed in that part of Lorraine. "U. S. Official

Knights of Columbus direction in the camps; how to help the Travelers' Aid; how to recruit secretaries for camp work at home and abroad; and how to co-operate in governmental activities, such as the loan drives, or Red Cross campaigns. The effectiveness of this united, national co-operation of Catholics, guided by the suggestions of the War Council, was shown, among many other utterances, by the Red Cross in its letter of December, 1917, in which it stated that, "The Catholic Church has rendered invaluable service to the American Red Cross," and, in a later letter, "The

More than four thousand women's organizations were registered and the multiform ways in which Catholic women helped the Government win the war were nationally co-ordinated. It was through this committee that the highly important work of building and maintaining visitors' houses at various camps where they were most needed was carried on, together with the equally urgent task of establishing community houses in various centres where they were most required. In addition there was the preparing, the dispatching, and the supervision of the overseas workers, three units of which

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were sent to France, Italy, Belgium and Poland. The workers for the visitors' houses, the overseas units and the community houses were trained at the National Catholic Service School at Clifton, Washington.

Through other sub-committees of the central Special Activities Committee the Council contributed materially to the reconstruction activities

from the standpoint of Catholic principles, the pronouncement made by the Four Bishops of the Administrative Committee attracted international attention, and ran through three editions of one hundred thousand copies each.

THE KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS ALREADY PREPARED TO SERVE.

When the great war broke out the Knights of Columbus had already re-



THE LAST TRIBUTE FOR FALLEN COMRADE

Here Reverend Matthew J. Walsh, Chaplain, U. S. A., is shown conducting the burial services over Edmund Lennon, a K. C. Secretary. Sometimes the attendance at a burial was large; at others only a few could be present. Sometimes the last services were conducted while shells were dropping in the neighborhood. Father Marsh and Monsignor Connelly are on the left and right of the officiating priest. U. S. Official

of the government; opening and maintaining a country-wide system of employment bureaus and of workingmen's clubs, called "Everyman's Clubs," and a number of vocational training schools at the Catholic University and elsewhere. Many pamphlets on important aspects of social service problems, notably the famous "Reconstruction Programme," were published and distributed widely, in addition to a monthly Bulletin.

The Reconstruction Programme calls for a special word of consideration. Dealing with the whole subject of labor and capital in their social aspects,

ceived their diploma of graduation as qualified agents in war relief work through their service to the men of the Regular Army and National Guard at the Mexican border. Eagerly they welcomed the new opportunity to serve. They had the organization, the machinery, and the will to accomplish great things. The Hierarchy gave them the fullest endorsement, and with that as their good will capital, they subscribed their own initial war fund and commenced their work. Instantly their repute guaranteed them public favor, and when at length they appealed to the general public for funds in individ-

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ual state jurisdiction drives, the support they received exceeded their most sanguine hopes. Briefly, instead of obtaining three million dollars as they had at first hoped, the Knights of Columbus independent war drive resulted in over fourteen million dollars.

As rapidly as circumstances permitted, they translated every dollar of this fund into services for the men in the Army and Navy. Buildings in every large camp in this country were quickly erected, equipped and manned, and through every phase of camp life the Knights of Columbus men were known as energetic friends of the soldier, never so much as when the influenza plague swept through the camps and demanded heroic self-sacrifice on the part of all those who would truly earn the title of patriot.

When William J. Mulligan, chairman of the Knights of Columbus Committee on War Activities, went overseas with Rev. P. J. McGivney, supreme chaplain of the organization, the work of the Knights with the American Expeditionary Forces was definitely extended so that it embraced all the leading points of disembarkation and followed the movements of troops through training and rest areas to the very front of battle.

A SUMMARY OF THE ACTIVITIES OF THE KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS.

In a few months the Knights of Columbus service was known to practically every man of the American Expeditionary Forces. On the signing of the armistice the Knights had approximately eight hundred workers abroad. The Knights were the first American war relief workers to establish themselves in Germany with the American army of occupation. They instituted clubs in Italy, in Great Britain, in Ireland, Belgium, and Holland.

The Knights had two hundred and fifty points of operation overseas. Over one thousand secretaries constituted the personnel of these establishments. At home the Knights had over three hundred and sixty buildings in home camps, manned by seven hundred and fifty secretaries. In all the large cities the Knights maintained

service stations, and this feature of their work was emphasized in large Atlantic seaport cities like New York, Boston and Philadelphia, where all the transports were met.

One of the most important problems of reconstruction work—the re-employment of returning service men—was met by the Knights of Columbus in conjunction with the Committee on Special Activities of the National Catholic War Council. With Peter W. Collins, an expert formerly in the Government's employ, at the head of their Reconstruction and Employment Service, the entire Knights of Columbus organization was developed and systematized so that each Knights of Columbus Council became an employment bureau for returned service men. At the end of the war a nation wide system of free education was launched by the Knights as part of its share of Americanization work.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE CORPS OF CHAPLAINS.

The Direction of the Catholic Chaplains in the Army and Navy of the United States was entrusted by the Pope to Right Reverend Patrick J. Hayes, D.D., who was the Auxiliary Bishop of New York at the time of the appointment, and is now the Archbishop of that city. Bishop Hayes was one of the first members of the Administrative Committee of the National Catholic War Council, and continued to serve in that capacity until he became Archbishop, in 1919.

The question of the Catholic chaplain in war time, of course, was the centre of the whole terrible problem of war, so far as Catholics were concerned. Great as was the recognized importance of recreational work in the huge camps that sprang up throughout the land and overseas; unquestionable as was the need for safeguarding the physical health and mental stability of the soldiers and sailors, still more was it essential, much more was it a matter of paramount importance, a pressing duty upon the leaders of the Catholic body, to safeguard the immortal souls of the gallant young men who went forth to give their lives for

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their country. Catholic Chaplains for the Army and Navy; Catholic Chaplains in sufficient numbers and adequately equipped to carry on their sacred work—this was the crux of the Catholic problem; this work above all other types of work was the first and foremost.

There were only a few chaplains in the American Army at the outbreak of the war, twenty-four in all, of whom

the men in the service, when the size of the regiment was so greatly increased. Through the officers of the National Catholic War Council, co-operating effectively with clergymen of other denominations, the Hierarchy brought the claims of the Catholic men in the service to the friendly attention of the government, and as a result, the Chaplains' Bill was passed by Congress, increasing the number of chaplains to



GETTING IN LINE FOR FOOD

These Belgian children in the town of Staden have forgotten that they are hungry in their curiosity at being photographed. It is difficult to get them to form a proper line or to maintain it when it has been formed.

eight were Catholics; and in the Navy there were only four or five. In the whole of the National Guard organizations of the United States there were only nine Catholic Priests, and these had no official standing. The going of our troops to the Mexican border in 1918 revealed the lamentable shortage of chaplains, and when the United States entered the War the first and foremost of the problems which the Hierarchy had to solve was this.

The army regulations provided for but one chaplain to every regiment—a condition which was conducive to grave neglect of the spiritual needs of

one in every twelve hundred men, a representation which had been the rule under the old organization of the army. The government was so well aware of the importance of the chaplains that they met the fullest wishes of the religious authorities of all denominations in adopting a policy of non-interference under the draft law with students in seminaries, a wise provision which looked to the future and which if the war had been of long continuance would have conduced to maintain a full supply of chaplains.

Men of every creed, especially practical commanding officers in the Army

and Navy, admitted the value, even in a military sense, of the presence of the chaplains with the forces. To have the companionship and inspiration of a clergyman—to whom all his life he had looked for guidance and friendship; to be in constant touch with the Sacraments, the source of inspiration and strength in the paths of duty; to know that if death should come to him he would have near him the help most needed—all this, to the Catholic soldier, made for better morale, and the best army is that in which the morale is highest. And in an army and a navy like those of the United States, where Catholics formed such a notably large proportion, the benefit of strengthening all the elements of morale were obvious. President Wilson, Secretary of War Baker, and Secretary of the Navy Daniels, fully recognized the expediency of increasing the number of chaplains, and of conserving the sources of their supply, and General Pershing embodied in one of his reports an urgent call for more chaplains for his army.

BISHOP HAYES APPOINTED CHAPLAIN BISHOP BY THE POPE

With the vast increase in the number of Catholic chaplains in both branches of the service, chaplains who came from all dioceses of the country, complex problems of ecclesiastical jurisdiction immediately arose, and the only simple and efficient way out of these difficulties was taken in November, 1917, when Bishop Hayes was appointed Chaplain Bishop by the Pope, and placed in supreme spiritual authority over all the Catholic chaplains in the Army and Navy of the United States.

Once the chaplains had been surrendered by their own diocesan authorities they came under the immediate spiritual jurisdiction of the Chaplain Bishop. The Chaplain Bishop was offered military rank by the United States government but declined it, feeling that he could do more good by not sacrificing his own liberty. He assumed active control early in January, 1918, and at once named five Vicar Generals whose work was the same, ecclesiastically, so far as the

chaplains in their districts were concerned, as that of a Bishop in a diocese. Rt. Reverend Monsignor James N. Connolly was named Vicar General in charge of overseas activities; Rt. Reverend Monsignor William M. Foley, Great Lakes Vicariate; Rt. Rev. Monsignor Leslie J. Kavanaugh, Gulf Vicariate; Rt. Rev. Monsignor Joseph M. Gleason, Pacific Vicariate; and Rt. Rev. Monsignor George J. Waring, Atlantic Vicariate; Rev. Joseph P. Dineen, private secretary to the Chaplain Bishop; Rev. Lewis J. O'Hern, C.S.P., executive secretary, stationed in Washington, D. C.

In his circular letter addressed to the Catholic Chaplains of the Army and Navy in April, 1918, Bishop Hayes authoritatively laid down the principles which governed this supreme department of Catholic war activity, and brought out in high relief the spiritual opportunities open to the priests who flocked to the colors under the Sign of the Cross. "In the first place," he wrote, "let me beg of you to bear in mind that both of us, Bishop and Priest, are an integral and necessary part of wartime jurisdiction—it would hardly do to call it a diocese—with the flock ever on the brink of eternity scattered over land and sea, amid the perils of the battle front, perils of the fortified clouds, and perils of the garrisoned deep. Hardly ever before in the history of the Church, have shepherds been called to follow and care for the fold of Christ under more dangerous and heroic circumstances. * *

"A war chaplain must be a man of marked spiritual life both for the efficiency of his ministry, and for the safety of his own soul. If the course of modern warfare demands military leaders to be almost supermen from the viewpoint of genius, endurance and courage, surely priests who serve such men as ministers of Christ and guides of souls should be of a very superior type with regard to strength and spirituality of character. The Chaplain Corps should be so impressively and supernaturally clean-cut in its alignment before the public eye that no place be given in its body, for a

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moment, to a weakling, moral or spiritual."

THE EXTENT OF THE WORK PERFORMED BY THE CHAPLAINS.

At the time of the Armistice, there were one thousand and twenty-six Chaplains in active service, with four hundred and ninety-nine others whose applications had been officially approved; one thousand five hundred and twenty-five in all. They came from every state in the union; they went wherever the American flag was carried; serving not only the ships that carried men through the submarine-infested waters, and on the firing line in France, but also they were with our men in Alaska, the Philippines, China, the Hawaiian Islands, and Siberia. Of these chaplains, a large number were killed on the battlefield, or died as the result of disease or exposure contracted in the service, or have succumbed since the Armistice as the result of injuries received at the front. The United States government has officially honored many of the chaplains, and the Allied governments have also officially recognized their bravery and their devotion to their sacred duties.

The Chaplain Bishop himself testifies to the satisfying fact that his relations with our government were most cordial, and that the official authori-

ties helped in every way possible to facilitate his work. Especially was this true at the time of the influenza epidemic, when every request made to the authorities concerning the prompt transfer of chaplains from the posts they then occupied to places where they could more actively assist the victims of that terrible scourge was instantly complied with. On the same authority it may be said that the Chaplain Bishop and his chaplains on the whole had very pleasing relations with the non-Catholic chaplains and the authorities of other denominations; indeed, as a rule, the priests in the service have little but words of praise for the co-operation extended them by non-Catholic chaplains.

As to the relation between the men and their chaplain, the thousands of letters received by the Chaplain Bishop from the priests in the service supply the best and most satisfactory evidence. To sum up, it may justly be said that the documentary evidence, and the living voice of the army and navy, concur in supporting this statement, namely, that the greatest personal friend the boys had in the camp was the chaplain, and the appreciation of his service was felt keenly and expressed warmly by non-Catholics as well as by the Catholics.

War Work of the Y M C A

BY THE SEARCH-LIGHT INFORMATION BUREAU

THE Young Men's Christian Association is a world-wide organization engaged in civil or social welfare service. Its emblem, the Triangle, bears the words BODY, MIND, SPIRIT, and symbolizes its true purpose,—to assist and encourage the young manhood of the world to develop physically, mentally, and spiritually. The Y is the oldest of the social welfare service societies. It originated in London, England, June 6, 1844, when a group of young men employed in a drygoods establishment met to talk over ways and means to improve the spiritual condition of young men engaged in business. This purpose was soon enlarged to include their mental and social needs. Attractive rooms were secured where reading matter was kept on file and popular lectures given. In 1848 a library was opened and a short time afterward educational work was attempted.

THE Y ESTABLISHED IN CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

The first Associations in America were organized in 1851 in Montreal and Boston, on the same basis as the British Association. Physical training as an adjunct of Y work was first practiced by the Brooklyn, N. Y., Association in 1855. The spread of Y physical training dates from 1856 when the New York City Association changed the constitution to read, "The object of this Association shall be the improvement of the spiritual, mental, social, and physical condition of young men." An Association building at 23d Street and 4th Avenue, New York City, equipped with gymnasium, bowling alleys and baths, the pioneer of similar Association buildings, was opened in 1869.

THE Y'S MILITARY EXPERIENCE IN SEVEN WARS—SEVENTY YEARS.

The first Y. M. C. A. war work recorded is that of British Y observers at the battle of Solferino in Italy in 1859. The first war work of the

American Y. M. C. A. was in the Civil War (1861-1865) when it called the convention which resulted in the United States Christian Commission. In the Spanish-American War (1898) 528 secretaries served with the American troops in Cuba, Porto Rico and in the Philippines. This resulted in a request from the War and Navy Departments to establish the Y work as a permanent service, and the Y has since been a service organization in the principal posts and ports of the United States and its insular possessions. In the Russo-Japanese War (1903-1904) the value of the welfare work as a factor in maintaining the spirit of the army was recognized by the Japanese Government. In the Boer War (1899-1900) the Canadian Y inaugurated camp and field welfare service which the British brought to fine achievement during the World War.

FIRST CIVIC WELFARE ORGANIZATION IN THE WORLD WAR.

At the outbreak of the World War the British and Canadian Y. M. C. A. joined the colors. Within two weeks 250 centres were opened in Great Britain. The Canadian contingent took its secretaries to Europe with it. Before America entered the war there were 1500 centres in full swing. It was this experience that established the hut type of service on an extensive scale, with the general features that have proved so valuable under so many varying conditions. This work reaches outside the British Isles, to Canada, Egypt, the Dardanelles, Malta, the Mediterranean ports, India, Mesopotamia, Eastern South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. The India Y. M. C. A. accompanied the troops from India to a dozen fronts on three continents and opened a chain of huts in India itself.

AMERICAN Y. M. C. A. EXTENDS ITS SERVICE TO EUROPE.

Dr. John R. Mott, in 1914 embarked for war-stricken Europe. The assur-

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ances which he gave of American support in both men and money resulted in immediate extension of activities. Work was begun with the French, Russian and Italian soldiers, in the Austrian Army and among the Bulgarians. The American Y supplied men and money for work with the Rumanian Army under patronage of the Queen of Rumania. Dr. Mott's observation in Germany, resulted in the

tents with an extensive traveling equipment. When America entered the World War (April 6, 1917) the American Y. M. C. A. offered its services to the Government of the United States the same day, pledging the loyal co-operation of all Y. M. C. A. agencies.

SERVING MILLIONS OF AMERICAN SOLDIERS AT HOME.

The local Associations were the foundations of the whole work. Not



WOMANLY INTEREST IN WELFARE WORK FOR MEN

Queen Mary inspecting one of the Y. M. C. A. huts that bore her name at the base in France. Her Majesty publicly declared her appreciation of the useful work carried on by the association in its many different centres for the benefit of the soldiers and sailors. Canada, Australia and New Zealand all had their own branches working with their own men.

British Official

inauguration of the Prisoners of War Work.

THE Y ALONG THE MEXICAN BORDER.

The crisis on the Mexican border (1916) caused the American Government to mobilize 150,000 troops along the Rio Grande. This was the largest number of American soldiers on the field under one command in half a century. The American Y entered immediately into this service; during nine months it assigned 374 secretaries to duties in the Army along the border, providing 42 buildings and six big

only did they uphold the National War Work Council, but they rendered untold service largely at their own expense, to soldiers and sailors in their own communities throughout the entire country, thus setting up nearly 2000 centres for action. City Associations threw their doors wide open and expanded their regular facilities on an unparalleled scale.

At the time war was declared, the Association was carrying on its standard programme of activities in the permanent posts of the Regular Army and in the Navy Yards, and this was con-

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tinued and expanded as occasion demanded throughout the war, but of course the greater part of its work was done in the training camps and cantonments which were established after the war began. Officers' Training Camps, National Guard Camps, National Army Cantonments, Naval Training Stations, Aviation Camps, units of the Students' Army Training

multiplied, while on 1102 different trans-Atlantic voyages 1512 Y. M. C. A. secretaries served an aggregate of 3,173,200 men with an equipment which cost \$1,057,157.97. The Y was the only welfare organization which assigned secretaries to ocean transports prior to the Armistice. Among the items distributed without charge to the troops on shipboard were 20,-



CANADIAN Y. M. C. A. HUT IN A SHELL HOLE

The Military Branch of the Y. M. C. A. carried on its work with the troops overseas in France and Germany, and in 76 centres in England. This included regular camps and units, base camps, convalescent camps and hospitals. More than \$4,500,000 was contributed for this work, and in Canada alone 100 civilian secretaries were employed by the Association.

© Canada, 1919

Corps in the colleges, and many other centres where smaller bodies of troops were assembled, all received the benefit of the Association's service.

THE Y. M. C. A. WITH THE GATHERING AND EMBARKING AMERICAN ARMY.

More than 5000 troop trains had Y representatives on board during the critical period of July 1, 1917, to October 30, 1918. Wherever possible there were two or three Y secretaries on each train. Y secretaries also served on 3000 troop trains carrying an average of 500 men each from the training camps to the embarkation camps and ports. Here the service was

085,422 cigarettes, 1,009,097 bars of chocolate and 25,333,880 pieces of stationery.

THE Y. M. C. A. WITH THE TRANSPORT SERVICE AND THE NAVY.

The crews of transport and supply ships and the men of the Army supply depots were engaged in work of the greatest importance, and the Y sought to help them to realize that labor which seemed to them routine drudgery was essential. Aboard 1090 supply ships, equipment consisting of athletic material, writing material, libraries, motion pictures, and comforts for free distribution, was placed by the Y. On

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some of these ships the recreational material was provided jointly by the Y. M. C. A. paying 74.9 per cent, the National Catholic War Council 22.4 per cent, and the Jewish Welfare Board 2.7 per cent.

THE Y. M. C. A. OVERSEAS EUROPEAN NAVY SERVICE.

A combined Y. M. C. A. Army and Navy work was carried on throughout the entire war period for soldiers, sail-

women workers besides the staffs at Central Headquarters in London, Paris, Rome and at the regional and district offices such as Bordeaux and Liverpool. A total of about 2500 local volunteer workers gave their aid.

THE Y. M. C. A. OVERSEAS AND SUPPLEMENTARY WORK.

The problems which the American Y. M. C. A. faced in Europe were more difficult than those in America.



THE FIFTEEN HUNDREDTH "Y" CENTRE IN FRANCE

ors, and marines at the ports of entry such as Liverpool, Southampton, Bordeaux, St. Nazaire, Brest, Havre and the cities of London and Paris. Also in the mine-laying bases in Scotland, the naval aviation camps on the coasts of Ireland and France, and the bases from Corfu and Gibraltar in the south to Archangel the northernmost European post were centres. During the days of the Armistice new stations were opened at Kirkwall and Spalato. Service was also rendered to sailors of the British Navy. At the signing of the Armistice the Y in the Navy overseas was operating in 78 stations and cities, with 135 different centres. The personnel included 354 secretaries and 107

It was separated from its base by 3000 miles of ocean, while the pressure on available shipping was so great, owing to the ravages of submarines and the transport requirements of the Army itself, that during practically the entire period of military operations the Association secured *less than half of the cargo space* estimated as necessary to keep it adequately provided with material. This deficiency alone made it difficult for the Y. M. C. A. to render that more adequate service which it was prepared to give, and for lack of which it received the usual quota of uninformed, inconsiderate, careless and sometimes ill-natured and malicious criticism.

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Of the 2,086,000 American soldiers sent to Europe, over 1,025,000 passed through the British Isles, for the most part transported in British ships. For this emergency an American Y organization was set up in various cities of the British Isles to serve this immense army in transit, in addition to the 50,000 men of the United States Navy stationed in British ports. Clubs, hotels, and recreation huts for officers

pool, Glasgow, Belfast, Dublin, Queens-town, Southampton, Folkestone and other cities.

Over 5000 Y women and men served the Association in the United Kingdom. At the famous Eagle Hut on King's Way, known as "America in London," the volunteer workers alone numbered over 1000 and included members of the Rotary Club, one of the Y's most ardent supporters, and



LIGHTENING THE WAY

English woman serving hot coffee to some of the French reserves sent in to repulse the German attack in Flanders, in April, 1918, which was aimed at Hazebrouck, a vital railroad centre in the north. Such refreshment vans were on the style of the old London coffee stalls and were kept open day and night. N. Y. Times

and enlisted men, were conducted in the large cities of the United Kingdom; sightseeing tours were conducted through the country to all historical points. A staff of 200 served the 78 Aviation Camps where American fliers were in training.

The International Hospitality League in co-operation with the American Y. M. C. A., working in close harmony with the British, Canadian, Australian and New Zealand Associations, rendered a moral work of the utmost importance to the well-being of the American soldiers and sailors thronging the streets of London, Liver-

members of the Green Cross, all recruited from the ranks of women employed during the day. At Washington Inn, St. James' Square, there were 213 volunteer workers; at Officers' Inn, Cavendish Square, 130 volunteer workers; day after day and month after month hundreds of women worked in canteens and at social centres wherever the American Y. M. C. A. established huts.

THE AMERICAN ARMY AND THE Y IN FRANCE.

In France more than 12,000 American men and women, enlisted under the Red Triangle as a unit of the

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American Army, served the troops. The Y. M. C. A. was the first American welfare organization to start work in France and its service has been estimated by competent authorities, as amounting to more than 90 per cent of all the social welfare work done in France. To perform this work the Y. M. C. A. erected in France 491 wooden huts and 1045 tents, furnished them, and rented others. Thousands of army billets were requisitioned under military authority in the devastated region in France and the occupied section of Germany. In addition to this expense the sum of \$50,000,000 was expended in social welfare alone, in and about these centres.

THE Y HUT—THE ARMY'S HOME—THE SOLDIER'S CLUB.

In carrying out its welfare programme the aim and apex of the whole Y organization was the "Hut." The "hut" in hundreds of cases was a large, commodious, especially designed wooden building, uniquely fitted to be the centre of the social life of the military community. In the cities of France and England it was often a luxuriously furnished private dwelling, chateau, or hotel. At the front, near the firing line, it was often nothing more than a half demolished building, a barn, cellar, or dug-out, but wherever the Red Triangle was displayed it was still a "hut," the connecting link between the soldiers and their homes.

In all, the Y operated for the American Army at home and abroad over 4000 "huts," "homes" and "clubs," at a cost of over \$20,000,000 for construction and equipment alone. It then expended more than \$73,000,000 on activities and free services in these huts or directly radiating from them. In America 952 wooden buildings were constructed and equipped by the Y at a total cost of \$8,338,317. In the British Isles, 154 huts were operated; of these 47 were permanent Y buildings, 37 constructed huts, 33 rented quarters, and 37 buildings furnished rent free by the British.

In France, owing to the shifting conditions of warfare, several hundred huts were opened, equipped, operated

for periods varying from days to months, and evacuated as the military population moved out. After the Armistice, in February, 1919, 2505 huts were being operated in France and Germany. Of these 431 were specially constructed wooden buildings, 538 rented buildings, 579 Army billets or temporary quarters, and 957 tents. A total of \$11,679,490 was expended in France and Germany on huts alone. Besides, over 100 hotels and cafés were operated in France and Germany for American soldiers, the yearly rental of which was in excess of 3,000,000 francs.

POST EXCHANGES—THE Y CARRIED THE CANTEN BURDEN.

The Y. M. C. A. in addition to its free service requiring expenditures of \$129,082,900 in the World War, took the burden of the Post Exchanges or Canteens off the shoulders of the Army in France and operated at cost for the soldiers a chain of over 1400 retail stores, the largest chain of retail stores in the world.

Ordinarily this business enterprise is handled by the Army itself, but in order that the large number of soldiers required for the purpose might be released for their primary functions of training and fighting, the Association, at the Army's request—practically an order—took over the "sour lemon of the canteens" as it has been called, and operated them until April 1, 1919, when, after the close of military operations, the Army was again in a position to assign soldiers to the task.

The canteens supplied to the soldiers such articles of common need as cigars, cigarettes, tobacco, matches, chewing gum, biscuits, jam, canned fruits, sardines, chocolate, candy, handkerchiefs, sewing kits, shoe polish, soap, razors, razor blades, shaving sticks, shaving brushes, tooth paste, tooth brushes, candles and many others. The volume of business transacted by the Association in connection with the canteens was in excess of \$50,000,000. Because of the shortage of transportation and consequent impossibility of obtaining adequate supplies from America, the Association was obliged to purchase in

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Europe and even to manufacture some of its canteen supplies. The higher prices which these operations as well as the excessive cost of transportation entailed led to charges of profiteering against the Association, but as a matter of fact canteen prices were fixed on the basis of actual cost of articles sold plus estimated cost of transportation and insurance, *without charge for rent of huts,*

Quartermaster Department. Among both of these supplies were cases of cigarette packages containing gift coupons, which, when sold gave rise to the wide-spread slander that the Y was selling gift goods for profit. As proved by rigid investigation the Y received no more cigarettes and sold no more than were paid for, but it has been difficult to correct this slander.



HOLIDAY AT THE INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN CANTEEN

salaries and expenses of canteen workers, accountants, or any other overhead expenses.

THE STORY OF THE SALE OF GIFT CIGARETTES.

Consignments of gift cigarettes created some complications through their being sent with ordinary consignments bearing no exterior distinguishing marks. Owing to pressure of work in unloading at docks, goods were sorted by commodities instead of by consignments, and Y workers presenting manifests for a number of cases of goods would receive the first cases available, regardless of consignment mark. Unmarked supplies were also furnished the Y. M. C. A. by the

ACCOMPLISHMENT OF THIS SERVICE TO THE ARMY.

The Canteen Service rendered the A. E. F. can only be summarized here: Canteen or Post Exchange goods were distributed at 1414 points up to January 1, 1919, ranging from large hotels or casinos in leave areas where thousands of men might be served in a day, to rolling kitchens consisting of camion and trailer serving men at the front under fire. At one time or another 159 different articles were sold.

From the outset the Y was faced with a shortage of cargo tonnage exceeding 50 per cent of their estimated requirements while at no time did motor or railroad transport approach

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the needs. Conditions were aggravated by military restrictions, embargoes and delays, but, nevertheless, between June 1, 1918, and March 1, 1919, the Traffic Department handled 9554 cars of material, an average of nearly 1000 cars a month. Forty-seven warehouses were operated in France; 7 base port warehouses, 5 central; 3 forward, and 32 divisional.

The credit balance of about \$500,000 which remained at the end of the entire canteen transaction, and which would probably have been wiped out altogether if all proper charges had been included, was turned over to the American Legion as representing the ex-service men—this in accordance with the practice in the Army of using canteen profits for the benefit of the soldiers. The Y. M. C. A., it must be understood, continued at all times its free distribution of its own goods. Supplies given away in free service in these canteens amounted in value to \$2,664,253.61.

THE FORTY-FOUR Y FACTORIES OPERATED ABROAD.

The scarcity of ship tonnage, preventing the shipment of sufficient supplies from America and the absolute lack in Europe, forced the Y into an extensive manufacturing programme. The scheme was set on foot early and by April 1, 1918, the Y accumulated enough raw material to begin operating on a large scale. From that date until December 31, 1918, when the Quartermaster Corps of the American Army took over the plants the Association put successively into operation 44 factories. These factories during six months produced chocolate, chocolate cream bars, chocolate nut rolls, caramels, cartons, biscuits and jam.

Stationery was also manufactured. For this purpose wood pulp was purchased and transported to the factory, and lamp black for printing inks, gum arabic for mucilage and talc to surface the paper, were bought in large quantities. A paper factory was secured at Tolosa, Spain, where 100,000,000 sheets of writing paper bearing the Red Triangle were made. This employed practically the whole town, men, women

and children, for a considerable period of time.

THE SERIOUS PROBLEM OF MOTOR TRANSPORT.

The problem of getting supplies into the warehouses was chiefly one of overcoming railroad conditions. The problem of the distribution of these supplies to the various units was that of motor transport. It is needless to mention the difficulties the Association experienced in getting cars. At no time did it approach the required needs. The total motor equipment purchased was about 2200 vehicles of all descriptions. For the care and maintenance of this equipment the Association operated in France 100 garages. Mobile repair shops were operated in the advance sector. Drivers and mechanics employed aggregated about 600 men at the period of maximum activity.

During offensives, all roads leading to the battle front were jammed with traffic. Great trucks laden with ammunition, food, and men, long lines of horse and motor-drawn cannon, little carts bearing machine guns and ammunition, ambulances, every conceivable form of military transport crowded every possible shell-torn and traffic-worn road. There was no question of making speed any more than on a crowded city street in need of repairs. Strict military regulations ruled the traffic.

In the Argonne, most of the roads were open to traffic one way only. It took sometimes twenty-four hours to make a circuit of fifteen or twenty kilometres. At times, even the Army Quartermaster could not get to the front the necessary subsistence. Much less could the Y with its limited equipment get forward its goods.

FREE BANKING FOR THE SOLDIERS ESTABLISHED.

The Y. M. C. A. became the banker and depository for the soldiers free of cost and found itself engaged in extensive banking operations as trustees of funds, on behalf of the members of the American Expeditionary Forces. The Y forwarded 351,460 remittances, involving the sum of \$21,558,214.41 to

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the relatives of soldiers throughout the world without any charge for handling, and also sent some money by cable. It would have cost the soldiers more than \$112,000 for the actual expense incurred for this service. The French banks refused to cash American checks other than Army pay checks. The duty then devolved on the Y to serve the soldier and assist him in cashing his checks. As a result it made payment on pay checks, personal checks and checks

LEAVE AREAS—VACATIONS FROM BATTLE-FRONTS, CAMPS AND SHIPS.

One of the most useful services rendered by the Y. M. C. A. was the provision of vacation and recreation centres in Leave Areas for the soldiers and sailors. It was, of course, impossible for American soldiers in Europe to spend their periods of leave at home, as the British and French were able to do. The military authorities turned to the Association for a solution of this



KEEP THE GLOW IN OLD GLORY

Girl war-worker playing "Keep the Glow in Old Glory" which became very popular in Paris. This scene is taken from the Y. M. C. A. garden party given in the Garden of the Tuileries for the benefit of the Paris poor whose homes were destroyed by the German long-range guns. International Film Service

on American banks in large numbers. This was especially heavy at week-ends and holidays.

The work among Allied Armies and Prisoners of War was financed by the National War Work Council, but administered jointly by the War Work Council and the International Committee in the name of the International Committee. This varied work, involving contact with thirty different nationalities, was administered from New York with special field secretaries in charge of different branches of the work scattered over the world. American secretaries assigned to other Y. M. C. A. movements worked under the general direction of these movements.

big problem, equally as new to the Army as it was to the Y. M. C. A., and developing into one of the most vital confronting the American Expeditionary Forces. This required the Y. M. C. A. to engage in another gigantic enterprise, co-operating with the Army in taking control in dozens of cities; in leasing hotels, restaurants, theatres, casinos, conducting some of the leading resorts and watering places in France—until it found itself the greatest hotel syndicate in the world, with accommodations each day and beds each night for 70,000 soldiers. This cost \$2,799,700, in addition to the cost of entertainment on a tremendous scale.

The Army designated the areas and

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centres, on the Y. M. C. A.'s suggestions, besides providing transportation, food and lodging for soldiers on leave while on a duty status. The Y furnished all recreation, entertainment and service.

THE LEAVE AND RECREATION CENTRES ESTABLISHED.

Thirty-three leave centres and six recreation centres were equipped and maintained for American soldiers by Army orders in thirteen leave areas in France, Germany and Monaco, besides two in Italy and one in England. This was accomplished with a Y. M. C. A. personnel of 885 secretaries, 408 men and 477 women trained for leave area work, who entertained over 450,000 soldiers in the French leave areas, 150,000 in the recreation centres, and 510,000 in the Rhine leave areas, not including the soldiers entertained in Paris, England and Italy. Some of the best known holiday resorts in Europe were utilized.

The opening of these leave centres on February 16, 1918, marked the launching of a great enterprise. For example the Grand Cercle at Aix-les-Bains, famous around the world, was converted into a club house for the American doughboy. With theatres running, several movie performances a day in the cinema hall, dancing in the ball-rooms, continual canteen service in several parts of the casino, rough and tumble frolics every night after the show, athletics in the form of baseball, soccer, hikes in the mountains, boat excursions on the lakes, thermal baths, nothing was overlooked for the soldier's comfort.

The first week-end recreation centre opened was in the Hotel de la Plage at Ste. Marguerite for army and naval officers at St. Nazaire. The experiment proved so successful that similar recreation centres were opened at Trez-Hir (Long Beach) near Brest, Nancy, close to the front, and at Valençay near Issoudun. Later Lyons and Paris were added to this list of activities. In January, 1919, the centres of Chambéry and Challes-les-Eaux in the Savoy Area were set aside for negro soldiers on leave.

The Rhine Valley Area was opened after the Armistice, following the advance of the Army of Occupation. Five centres were conducted at Coblenz, Neuwied, Treves, Andernach, and Neuenahr. These were operated under supervision of the Paris Leave Area office until May 7, 1919, when they were turned over to the control of the Third Army Y. M. C. A. at Coblenz, to be merged eventually with the general Y. M. C. A. work within its respective Army divisions in Germany.

ENTERTAINING THE ARMIES AT HOME AND ABROAD.

The Entertainment Service, carried through for the American Army, at home and overseas, reached immense proportions. In two years the Y. M. C. A. created an organization for entertaining and assisting the Army which ultimately became recognized to be as indispensable to the social welfare of soldiers in modern scientific warfare as were the departments which fed and clothed them to their material welfare.

In the accomplishment of this work the Y organized the biggest theatrical enterprise in the history of amusements. It mobilized a personnel of 1470 entertainers, including some of the best known dramatic and musical artists in the United States. It gave upward of 220,000 separate performances to the soldiers with an approximated attendance overseas of 88,000,000 and more than 48,000,000 at home. It provided overseas alone 23,000 costumes and accessories, 18,000 musical instruments, and 450,000 pieces of sheet music.

It gave overseas 157,000 movie shows aggregating over 8,000,000 feet, or more than 1500 miles of film. The aggregate attendance at these movie shows overseas alone (between April, 1918, and July, 1919) was over 94,000,000 at 5261 different places. It is estimated that in the United States and overseas the gross attendance at motion picture shows reached 210,000,000.

This was all absolutely free of cost to the soldiers. If, as under ordinary conditions, the soldier had paid a

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minimum admission fee of ten cents it would have cost the soldiers the sum of \$21,000,000 to attend these motion picture shows, and at even the same low admission price for vaudeville and other entertainment in excess of \$13,000,000 more. The net expenditure of the Y. M. C. A. to provide this huge enterprise exceeded \$7,300,000, and this figure was made possible by gratuitous or underpaid services which at usual professional rates would have at least doubled this expenditure.

ATHLETICS—BUILDING THE PHYSICAL MAN.

Under the orders of General Pershing, and in full co-operation with the Army, the Y organized in the World War a great series of athletic activities of all kinds. In the A. E. F. more than 33,000,000 took part in games under Y supervision, which were attended by 40,000,000 spectators. The Army in France, which averaged during this period 1,200,000, was thus served more than sixty times over.

More than 10,000,000 watched the Army baseball games in America and France, or more than twice as many as the season's attendance at both big leagues. Nearly all took part in informal games in the A. E. F. This included the mass and company games with everybody on one side or the other. More than 1000 Y athletic directors were employed to carry this programme through, including 345 full time directors at the maximum activity in France, and 541 in the home camps in March, 1918.

THE Y SUGGESTED THE INTER-ALLIED GAMES.

Besides serving the Army during the combat period, the Y proposed to the Army as early as October, 1918, a constructive athletic programme to be put in operation after the Armistice. This programme was adopted by the Army, and carried out with complete military co-operation under leadership of the Y. M. C. A. Athletic Department. It culminated in the A. E. F. Championships in May and June, and in the Inter-Allied Games held in the Pershing Stadium from June 22 to July 6, 1919.

The Pershing Stadium, seating 25,000 persons, was designed and built at the expense of the Y. M. C. A. for material and equipment. The French Government donated the site and the American Army furnished most of the labor. This Stadium was presented to the American Army, and later through General Pershing was offered as a gift to the French Nation and accepted.

EDUCATION—GIVING THE SOLDIER HIS OPPORTUNITY.

The Y. M. C. A. expended in educational work for American soldiers and sailors, at home and abroad up to October 1, 1919, more than \$6,000,000, of which \$2,509,655 was expended in America. Of this \$1,476,575 was for lectures, library service, instruction and educational literature, \$931,273 for newspapers, magazines and correspondence materials, and \$91,807 for sex hygiene education. The Overseas educational expenditures amounted to \$3,952,073.

The number of books and periodicals distributed free to the American Army abroad up to May 1, 1919, reached the grand total of 60,000,000. The record in France was: books, 5,400,000; periodicals, songbooks, maps, pamphlets, religious literature, 19,670,000; newspapers, 31,400,000.

In the British Isles, 2,700,000 books, magazines and newspapers were distributed. The Library Department in London purchased and dispatched to France more than 5,000,000 items, and 170,000 to Gibraltar, Russia and to war prisoners in Germany and Austria. In addition, in co-operation with and for the American Library Association it forwarded 128,936 books.

Overseas, all educational work prior to the Armistice was restricted by war conditions. The Educational Director, however, reported on October 1, 1918, that at that date 30,000 illiterates and foreign born were being reached by instruction in reading and writing English, and more than 200,000 were being taught French in huts.

THE Y'S GREATER EDUCATIONAL CONTRIBUTION.

The Y's most important educational contribution, however, was the elabor-

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ate system that it planned and developed for the Army from elementary classes in English for illiterates to a completely organized university, which the Army finally took over with the personnel as its Educational Corps for the altered conditions following the Armistice. This work involved a vigorous recruiting campaign for over 450 educators—teachers as well as or-

carried out under the direction of the men who had devised them, and reached impressive proportions.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER WELFARE AND RELIEF ORGANIZATIONS.

While the Red Cross provided for relief work, the welfare organizations provided for the amusement and recreation of the troops by means of their programme of social, educational,



AMERICANS ON LEAVE, AIX LES BAINS

International Film Service

ganizers in all educational fields—and the preparation of a list of text and reference books and educational supplies, estimated as sufficient for an army of 2,000,000 men. This list was sent to America, and an aggregate of 1,795,483 books and pamphlets, costing \$1,178,168 was actually delivered and paid for. On April 15, 1919, after several weeks' negotiation the Army took over the educational work at the request of the Y. M. C. A. Army Educational Commission. A previous offer of the Army to reimburse the Y. M. C. A. for textbooks and supplies was accepted, and about \$1,150,000 was paid. The plan and the methods worked out by the Y. M. C. A. were

physical and religious activities. The Young Women's Christian Association and the Jewish Welfare Board carried on their activities partly through the Y. M. C. A., and the Knights of Columbus and the Salvation Army participated with the Y. M. C. A. in certain activities. The American Library Association co-operated with the other organizations to the fullest extent wherever possible, putting its book service at the disposition of the American Expeditionary Forces through the medium of those organizations. In general, there was much cordial co-operation, and, on occasions, in the matter of entertainment, several organizations combined: for instance, the Red Cross

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and the Y. M. C. A. jointly financed the Army show of "Let's Go." During the period before the Armistice the Y provided Knights of Columbus huts with entertainment, as it supplied those of the Red Cross and the Jewish Welfare Board. In the spring of 1919 the Knights brought over entertainers who toured their huts, but the Y supply was still largely called upon. At Antwerp, in the spring of 1919, the Jewish Welfare Board, the Knights of Columbus, and the Y. M. C. A. combined to furnish the entertainment. The circus which toured the A. E. F. in the summer of 1919 was organized and partly equipped by the Y. M. C. A. at Bordeaux, but its later management, booking and financing were taken over by the Knights of Columbus.

The American Y served in the French Army as the *Foyer du Soldat*,—the soldier's fireside or hut. It assisted the British and Canadian Y's with the Chinese Labor Corps in France, with the Belgians, the Portuguese, the Moroccans, the Indians, and the score of races marshaled in the European fighting forces. It served in the Italian Army as the *Casa del Soldato*. It served with the Rumanians, the Czechoslovaks, and in Poland, in the prison camps of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria; with the Russians in the Southern and Central Armies, with the Allied forces in North Russia to the frozen front at Archangel and across Siberia to the Pacific Ocean.

Independent of both the Prisoners of War Work, or the enormous work with the American Expeditionary Forces in France, the funds expended by the American Y. M. C. A. in the Armies of the Allies in response to urgent representations from Allied Governments and Commanders approved by General Pershing, reached nearly \$20,000,000.

THE Y. M. C. A. WITH THE ARMY OF OCCUPATION IN GERMANY.

The Third Army for the occupation of the American sector in Germany consisted of some 300,000 troops, which commenced their march to the Rhine at 5:30 in the morning, November 17, 1918. The vanguard of the Y

forces came into the territory of occupation on December 11, 1918. By April 1, 1919, four months later, the Y had in operation 425 full time centres, while 83 other points were being served at regular intervals by portable motion picture equipment and rolling canteens.

All of the belligerents, except Turkey, opened the prisoners-of-war camps to Y work on a basis of international reciprocity. Permission to maintain activities in Germany was conditioned on the maintenance of a similar work for German prisoners in Allied prison camps. This work did not cease when America left the ranks of the neutrals and joined the forces allied against the Central Powers. The International Y Committee by permission of the German Government, kept its executive responsibilities, continued its support, and retained the majority of its senior secretaries in order to maintain the reciprocal nature of the service.

DENOMINATIONALISM DISCOURAGED BY THE Y LEADERS.

Denominationalism, as it is popularly known, was discouraged by the Y. At the huts, Protestant, Roman Catholic and Jewish chaplains conducted or assisted in services of an informal character. Saturday evening a Roman Catholic chaplain would use the quarters of a Presbyterian minister as an improvised confessional, and Sunday morning celebrate early Mass in a hut, which later was used for a Protestant service. On the two great Jewish holidays, New Year's Day and the Day of Atonement, when Jewish soldiers were given three days of leave to go to certain designated centres, the Y. M. C. A. huts at these places were placed at the disposal of Jewish rabbis. At the Jewish New Year service in the Y hut at Chaumont, General Headquarters of the A. E. F., a Roman Catholic chaplain, by invitation of the officiating rabbi, made the address, while Protestant ministers in the congregation joined in the services.

Although 1462 clergymen were sent overseas by the Y. M. C. A., only a small portion of these were assigned to definite religious duties, aside from a small group of special speakers sent

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in 1919. Denominationally the rosters of these were as follows: Baptist, 268; Christian, 100; Congregational, 191; Dutch Reformed, 1; Episcopal, 129; Evangelical, 3; Lutheran, 9; Methodist, 338; Moravian, 1; Presbyterian, 361; Reformed, 14; Swedenborgian, 1; Union, 8; Unitarian, 23; United Brethren, 7; Universalist, 8.

Religious activities comprised: regular religious work furthered by specially designated leaders and chaplains co-

Allies in various war zones throughout the world, among prisoners of war without respect to nationality—would have been impossible but for two factors which contributed largely to its success. The first was the generous financial co-operation of the American people as a whole.

The other factor was the faithful service of a body of devoted Americans, underpaid and overworked, who gave themselves unselfishly to the interests



CAMOUFLAGED CANADIAN Y HUT

These huts were carried up as near to the front lines as possible, and in some cases a notice was put on them announcing that their merchandise was for the wounded—or for walking wounded men only. Here such casualties could get a hot drink to fortify them against the wait for the ambulance or the weary walk back to the base.

N. Y. Times

operating with the Association, and evangelistic addresses by special speakers; Bible study work; distribution and use of religious literature, Bibles and Testaments, Jewish, Catholic and Protestant prayer books, Chaplains' libraries, hymn books and various other kinds of books; recruiting for Christian life vocations. More than 15,000,000 copies of special religious books and pamphlets were printed and distributed by the Y. M. C. A. These had been prepared by church leaders.

THE SERVICE OF THE Y. M. C. A. AND ITS PERSONNEL.

The vast war work of the Y. M. C. A. which has been here briefly sketched, in America, in the A. E. F., among the

of the country's defenders and who, as in all extensive welfare work, were at all times exposed to the "cynical and careless criticism which so frequently, with righteous indignation, almost curdled the cream of human kindness in the constitutions of the executives." Conditions created by the critical military situation were chiefly responsible for failures in performance on the part of the Y. M. C. A. and other welfare organizations. Uninformed as to these conditions, criticism magnified for ulterior purposes, was frequently traced with amusing disclosures to infantile and negligible sources, but the thousand tongues of wide-spreading rumor could not be silenced.

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The sources from which the Association could draw the personnel for its war work were limited by the prior claim of the Selective Service Law upon men of younger ages, by the high standard of physical efficiency demanded for service with troops in the field, and by exacting requirements in respect to loyalty, character and ability. Many of the men best suited for

than one per cent for insubordination and all other infractions of military rules, a remarkable record even in civil life, and especially remarkable under the stress and strain of war. While a few failed to measure up to their responsibilities the overwhelming majority was faithful and efficient.

Particular tribute is due the women workers, who achieved a notable record



THE Y. M. C. A. CLUB FOR AMERICAN OFFICERS AT TOURS

N. Y. Times

this work were in the army, and it would have been impossible to supply from the regular staff of the Association the much larger needs of the war work. Many of the secretaries came from that source and served most acceptably, but the great majority, led by patriotic motives, came from business and the professions. Whether in direct contact with the troops or engaged in the less thrilling but equally arduous duties of office or warehouse, they gave, as a rule, their interest whole-heartedly.

Among the Overseas Red Triangle Army of 12,000 workers it is of value to note that the delinquency in discipline and efficiency, according to disciplinary records, was a fraction of less

of usefulness and of whom as the war went on an increasing number came into the service. Ten Association secretaries, eight men and two women, were killed in action; 143 gave their lives in other ways while in the service; 174 were wounded or injured; five became prisoners of war. Military decorations, citations and commendations of Association workers by the American Army numbered 324, and similar honors from Armies of the Allies were conferred upon 251, of whom 54 received the *Croix de Guerre*.

RESOURCES—THE GENEROSITY OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC.

The money necessary to maintain the extensive operations which have

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been briefly summarized in the preceding pages, was obtained from three campaigns and miscellaneous sources as shown in the following table:

SUMMARY OF RECEIPTS	
(From April 26, 1917, to December 31, 1919)	
First Campaign	\$ 5,113,666.98
Second Campaign	53,334,546.81
Third Campaign (United War Work)	\$100,759,731.17
Overseas and Miscellaneous	551,628.92
Miscellaneous Income	252,940.73
Interest on Bank Balances and Securities	1,710,134.81
	\$161,722,649.42

The third campaign was held under the auspices of the United War Work Council which consisted of representatives of seven organizations co-operating jointly for the collection of funds. These seven organizations were: The Young Men's Christian Association, The Young Women's Christian Association, The Knights of Columbus, The Jewish Welfare Board, The War Camp Community Council, The American Library Association and The Salvation Army.

The entire American people responded to this joint appeal with a generosity which was typical of the American spirit. Never in the annals of human history had such a sum been collected for social service work through voluntary contributions. While the amount requested by the seven organizations was \$170,000,000, the total collected was \$203,199,730, nearly 20 per cent

above the quota asked. The largest individual subscription was that of the Rockefellers, father and son, who contributed \$8,000,000.

The amount collected was apportioned pro rata amongst the seven organizations composing the United War Work Council. The Y received as its allotment 58.65 per cent of the amount collected, or \$100,759,731.17. The total amount expended in maintaining the activities of Y. M. C. A. work amounted to the sum of \$129,082,917.43 from April 26, 1917, to December 31, 1919.

The total receipts during the same period as previously stated amounted to \$161,722,649.42 thus leaving a surplus or reserve of \$32,639,731.99. The estimated additional receipts from the United War Work Campaign together with interest accruing for six months in 1920, are estimated at \$5,599,712. Thus the total estimated reserve fund amounts to \$38,239,443.99. From this amount commitments and estimated future expenditures for welfare work amount to \$21,396,500.

This leaves an approximate unappropriated fund of \$17,000,000 *which would have been completely absorbed if the war had continued ten weeks longer*, thus requiring the raising of large funds to continue the service in the armies. In accordance with a resolution of the Executive and Finance Committees held January 20, 1920, it was recommended *that this money be appropriated for the continuance of welfare work in the Army and Navy in the United States and Overseas and that the Educational Programme for ex-service men be given continued support.*



VIVE LA FRANCE

As French and Belgian and British soldiers rode through liberated towns they were cheered by the people who had been prisoners of war in their own houses for four dreary years under a hostile rule that was sometimes cruel, and always hard. By the women's faces, by the light in the children's eyes, by the tears of old bearded men, it is clear what they had suffered.



BRITISH TROOPS ENTERING LILLE

At Lille as at Roubaix, Turcoing and Bruges everybody spoke a little English even the children, because they had been learning it for four years until the day of deliverance should come. Crowds swayed and surged in streets and squares. The words "English" and "England" were cried by thousands of people. From high windows women and children waved colored handkerchiefs, and in the streets men carried banners and garlands of flowers.

Henry Ruschin



London Scottish Behind Sandbags

CHAPTER LXXIV

The Last Offensive on the Northern Front

THE STRONGEST FORTIFICATIONS FALL BEFORE THE IRRESISTIBLE ADVANCE WHICH REACHES MONS

DURING the months of May, June, and July, 1918, the northern wing of the battle-line in France was quiescent. The Germans were engrossed in their second drive toward Paris and endeavored, in the north, to do nothing more than conserve their gains; and the British army was glad of a breathing-space in which to replace its losses and reorganize its shattered divisions. On July 4, it is true, the Australians carried out a highly successful local operation in front of Amiens, which resulted in the capture of Hamel, and which, in the admirable co-operation between tanks, artillery, and infantry distinguishing it, was destined to be a model for the operations of the later summer; but the main energies of the British command were devoted to preparing for the auspicious moment when Foch should launch the counter-stroke for which the world had been waiting.

THE BRITISH ARMY MAKES GOOD ITS LOSSES OF THE SPRING.

The losses sustained in March and April were made good, in a surprisingly short space of time, by the British ministry of munitions; the ill-fated Fifth Army, now under a new commander, General Birdwood, was reconstituted; and the opportunity was seized to give all ranks a thorough training in open warfare — a training

which went far to explain the unbroken series of crushing defeats which the British army was to inflict on the numerically superior German forces facing them in the latter half of 1918.

FOCH NOW DEPENDS UPON HAIG FOR THE NEXT MOVE.

The success of Foch's counter-attack on July 18 against the western face of the Marne salient between Soissons and Château-Thierry was the signal for the British counter-offensive to begin. It was Foch's idea, once the Germans had used up their reserves, to begin a series of blows with definite but limited objectives, in order to regain the initiative and to pave the way for a decisive blow later on. Having smitten the Germans in the Marne salient hip and thigh, he now called on Haig to deliver the next punch; and on August 8 Haig struck, opposite Amiens, with the object of freeing the Paris-Amiens railway and reducing the huge salient which the Germans had created in their March offensive.

THE BATTLE OF AMIENS IS CAREFULLY PLANNED.

For the attack the Canadian Corps, which had not been engaged in the battles of the spring, and which Haig had been nursing as a sort of *corps d'élite*, was brought down from Arras, and placed beside the Australian Corps, on the extreme right of the British line.

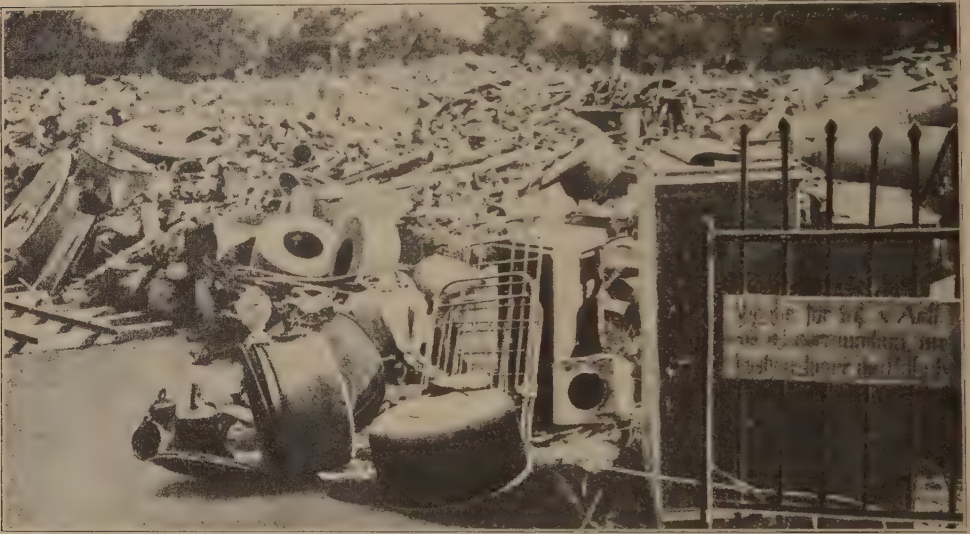
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These two veteran corps were to constitute the spearhead of the attack. On their right flank they were supported by the French First Army, south of Montdidier, which for the moment was placed under Haig's orders; and on their left flank, north of the Somme, they were supported by the Third British Corps, with which, it is interesting to note, was a regiment of the 33rd American Division. A fleet of four hundred tanks was brought together for the occasion; and the whole of the British Cavalry Corps was

no idea whither they were bound; and up to the last minute the whole operation was veiled in the greatest secrecy. All troop concentrations took place either by night or under cover of woods; and as the tanks moved forward to their assembly positions, care was taken to drown the noise of their engines with the loud drone of heavy aeroplanes.

THE ATTACK, WHEN DELIVERED, A COMPLETE SURPRISE.

By good luck, moreover, the morning of August 8 dawned heavy with



METAL LOOTED BY GERMANS IN AN OCCUPIED DISTRICT

Great dump of metal objects collected from French villages by the Germans for removal to their munition factories. It was not, however, so removed, for the Canadians, advancing in the summer of 1918, saved the miscellaneous accumulation from the predatory enemy. Bells and bedsteads, pipes and cisterns, stoves, tea-urns and boilers, all manner of metal articles, had been removed by the Germans from homes within their reach.

concentrated behind Amiens, ready to exploit any success. The frontage of the attack, extending from south of Montdidier to north of the Somme, was to cover about fifteen miles.

In order to obtain the effect of a surprise, the greatest care was taken by the British to mask their preparations. Two Canadian battalions were actually dispatched to the Flanders front, where facilities were afforded to the Germans for identifying them; and every effort was made to create the illusion that a great British attack was about to be launched in this sector. The Canadians themselves, on their way from Arras to Amiens, had

ground mist, which reproduced the conditions amid which the Germans had attacked the British before St. Quentin on March 21. The result was that the British attack was a surprise more complete than any perhaps which had yet been obtained on the Western front. The advance of the British infantry and tanks, which began simultaneously with the opening up of an intense rolling barrage from the massed British guns, found the Germans wholly unprepared for an attack. Their first line was overrun almost before they were aware that a battle was in progress. The tanks, careering ahead of the infantry, not only broke

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up the impromptu German defense, but disorganized the German telegraph and telephone communications. For a time chaos reigned behind the German front. The Canadians and the Australians, suffering very slight casualties, broke through to a depth of seven miles or more; and the French

but by August 12 the Germans were nearly everywhere back to the old line of the Somme defenses which they had occupied in 1916. Not only had the threat to Amiens been removed, and the Paris-Amiens railway freed from the fire of the German guns, but the Germans had been forced to effect a



"THE PARTHENON OF GOTHIC ARCHITECTURE"

Chancel of Notre Dame Cathedral, Amiens, August 15, 1918, showing the high altar arranged for the Thanksgiving Service, and the walls of sandbags that had been raised over the beautiful choir stalls to protect them from bombardment by the infuriated and defeated Germans. The service was attended by a large number of soldiers.

and the British on their flanks advanced in touch with them.

On August 9 the attack was renewed, and again met with notable success. By August 10 the Canadians and the Australians, with the help of the British cavalry, had advanced to a depth of over twelve miles; and this advance had compelled the Germans to withdraw before the French as far south as the Lassigny plateau. North of the Somme, difficulties of the terrain prevented the British Third Corps from obtaining a complete success;

wide withdrawal and their most important lateral line of communications, the Chaulnes railway, had been brought under the fire of the British guns.

In the old Somme defenses, however, where the labyrinth of trenches and the wild vegetation of the past two years afforded opportunities for a stubborn and dangerous machine-gun defense, the Germans, now reinforced by reserves from other parts of the line, showed themselves determined to make a stand. Sir Douglas Haig, since he had gained his objectives, and since



AN ENGINE OF VICTORY IN 1918

One of the British light tanks of 1918 with turret action and high speed first used successfully by the Australians in July, known as the "whippet."

it was no part of his policy to engage in a slugging-match, therefore broke off the battle at this point, and prepared to strike again farther north, where the enemy did not appear to be expecting an attack.

LUDENDORFF, STUNNED BY BRITISH SUCCESS, LOSES HEART.

The effect of the battle of Amiens on the German High Command was profound. Thirteen British infantry divisions and three British cavalry divisions, assisted by an American infantry regiment, had inflicted on twenty German divisions a crushing defeat, and had captured—without taking into account the captures made by the French on the right—nearly 22,000 prisoners and over 400 guns. That the British, who had been so severely handled in the spring, should have been able to deliver such an unexpected blow came to Ludendorff as a great shock. His perturbation is fully evidenced in his memoirs, in which he describes August 8 as "the black day in the history of the German army." Hitherto he had believed that victory might yet perch on the German eagles; now he was forced to the conclusion that victory was no longer possible. In his despair, he asked to be allowed to resign, and he advised the German government to open at once peace negotiations through the mediation of a neutral power.

LUDENDORFF IS NOT ALLOWED TO GIVE UP THE COMMAND.

To deceive the German people so suddenly and brutally, however, especially after the promises of victory with which they had so recently been buoyed up, was not deemed feasible by the German poli-

ticians; and Ludendorff was requested to remain in command, while the bitter process of enlightening the German people as to the true situation was begun. From the date of the battle of Amiens, therefore, the policy of the German High Command radically changed. All thought of the *Friedensturm*—the offensive that was to bring peace—was abandoned; and a defensive policy was adopted, in order to enable the German armies to stand fast until the politicians had been able to open the way for peace *pourparlers*.

The plan which Ludendorff now evolved was to withdraw gradually, as he had done in the spring of 1917, within the protection of the strong defenses of the Hindenburg line, and there to make a stand until the winter rains came to his relief and rendered further active fighting impossible.

THE BATTLE OF BAPAUME IS SPRUNG UPON THE GERMANS.

This, however, was precisely what Sir Douglas Haig did not intend to allow him to do. In 1917 the German retirement to the Hindenburg line had been largely completed before the British had realized that it was under way; but now Haig was fully alive to the situation, and was determined that Ludendorff should not a second time succeed in retreating "according to

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plan." Hardly had the battle of Amiens died down when he launched, on August 21, an offensive on the front north of the Somme, which had as its objective the capture of Bapaume and the turning of the German line on the Somme south of Péronne.

The first phase of the offensive was a preliminary attack, on a front of about nine miles north of the Ancre, in which the Fourth and Sixth Corps of Byng's Third Army recaptured Albert and reached the German main line of resistance along the Albert-Arras railway. Then, on August 23, the whole of the British Third and Fourth Armies attacked on a thirty-three mile front from just south of Arras to south of the Somme. The Fourth Army advanced astride the Somme in the direction of Péronne; while the Third Army, to which the main operation was confided, attacked across the old Somme battle-fields of 1916 in the direction of Bapaume.

BYNG GAINS MILES IN AN OLD AREA OF BITTER FIGHTING.

The attack won immediate success. The German defense north of the Somme broke down, and Byng's men advanced rapidly over the very ground they had been compelled to yield with such heavy hearts in the spring. In 1916 the British had suffered thousands of casualties in order to progress a few hundred yards, now they measured their advances by miles, instead of yards, at slight cost. The German machine-guns, as usual, put up a stubborn and gallant defense, but they had now met their match in the British tanks; and in rapid succession Thiépval, Pozières, Courcellette, Martinpuich, Miraumont, and many other places, the names of which are indelibly inscribed on the battle-flags of the British army, fell before the British attack. By August 29 the New Zealanders had entered Bapaume itself,

and the Germans had been evicted from the whole of the old battle-fields.

The success of the attacks by the Third Army had an immediate effect elsewhere. In the north, the Germans



Copyright TERRAIN OF THE FIGHTING FOR BAPAUME

Northern half of the area involved in Marshal Foch's second pincer movement, where the British Army under Sir Julian Byng closed in upon Bapaume, while General Mangin, further south, turned Noyon.

began to withdraw from the Lys salient, in order to shorten their line and to obtain reserves to bolster up their southern defense; and in the south, they were compelled to fall back on a wide front. They had to resign to the French their hold of Noyon and Nesle, and they had to withdraw their forces farther north behind the line of the Somme south of Péronne. Finally, on August 30-31, a brilliant exploit by an Australian infantry brigade resulted in the capture of Péronne itself.

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In the battle of Bapaume twenty-three British divisions had, in ten days, driven back no less than thirty-five German divisions, and had taken the remarkable total of over 34,000 prisoners and 270 guns. Such a success, as may be imagined, had an instantaneous effect on the *morale* of the British troops, who had now completely wiped from their minds the depressing events of the spring; and at the same time the battle revealed a progressive

of the Hindenburg line nearest to Haig's front was the northern flank opposite Arras. Before the battle of Bapaume, an attack on the German defenses in that sector would have been fraught with great danger, since the Germans south of Arras would have been on the right flank of the attack; but now that the Germans had been thrust to the east of the Arras-Bapaume road, an attack opposite Arras promised the most important results.



BOHAIN ON THE WESTERN FRONT

A town which fell into British hands during the great advance. Its civilian population of 3,500 long held captive by the enemy was liberated when the town was captured. In the foreground is a huge mine crater in the centre of one of the main streets. This mine was blown up by the retreating Germans. British Official.

deterioration in the *morale* of the Germans. It was now found, for almost the first time, that German rearguards began to surrender on finding themselves isolated.

CANADIANS LEAD THE WAY IN THE BATTLE OF ARRAS.

The omens seemed favorable, therefore, for the continuance of the British offensive. Now that Ludendorff was well on his way to the Hindenburg line, it became the policy of the British to attempt to forestall him in his occupation of that line. The part

Haig, having foreseen this contingency, and having indeed planned the battle of Bapaume as a preliminary to the battle of Arras, had already begun the transfer of the Canadian Corps from the Amiens to the Arras front; and on August 26 he launched opposite Arras an attack which had as its object the breaching of the Drocourt-Quéant switch-line, which connected the Lens defenses at Drocourt with the Hindenburg line at Quéant, and the capture of which was calculated to turn the defenses of the

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Hindenburg line farther south. If the British could get in the rear of these defenses before Ludendorff was able to get his army back to them, it would be difficult for him to make the stand that he contemplated.

THE DROCOURT-QUÉANT LINE AN IMMENSELY STRONG WORK.

In the first stage of the attack, the Canadians, supported by a British division on their left, advanced astride

built eighteen months before; and the Germans had spared neither time nor labor to render it impregnable. Some of its underground galleries were comparable only with the London "tubes." It had, however, been designed to withstand especially the artillery bombardments of a previous phase of the war, and was less invulnerable before the tank attacks of the latter half of 1918. The Germans, who were fully



A SYMBOL OF BETTER DAYS TO COME

A picture of the first house rebuilt in Lens after the victors had passed through the city in pursuit of the Germans. With the task of rebuilding so many thousands of homes in her devastated regions it is small wonder that French demands for German indemnity should be insistent and unremitting. © Underwood & Underwood

the Scarpe River on a front of about six miles and stormed the important village and hill of Monchy-le-Preux. This preliminary success opened up the way for a general advance of the First Army in the Arras sector, and in rapid order the whole area between the Scarpe and the Sensée Rivers west of the Trinquis Brook was cleared of the Germans. By the end of August the Germans were everywhere driven back to the Drocourt-Quéant switch-line.

The Drocourt-Quéant line was almost, though not quite, the last word in military engineering. It had been

aware of its strategical importance, had packed it with troops in anticipation of the British attack.

THE OPERATION EXCELLENTLY PLANNED AND WELL EXECUTED.

The attack, which was launched on the morning of September 2, resulted in one of the cleanest-cut successes of the whole campaign. The Canadian Corps, attacking in the north with forty tanks, broke through the whole zone of the Drocourt-Quéant defenses on a front of about five miles before noon; and the Seventeenth Corps of the Third Army, to the south, successfully

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stormed the triangle of fortifications marking the junction of the Drocourt-Quéant line with the Hindenburg line. The Germans, driven back into the open country, fought bitterly with their machine-guns to stay the British advance; but the victorious Canadians and British broke down their resistance, and they did not find shelter until they were behind the line of the Canal du Nord.

retreat. In front of the British Third Army, they withdrew rapidly to the general line of the Canal du Nord; and south of Péronne they relinquished the east bank of the Somme, to which they had been clinging. The effect of the battle was felt even as far south as the French front. On September 6 the Germans surrendered to the French both Ham and Chauny; and by September 8 the French had pushed



CAUGHT IN THE GLARE OF A GERMAN LIGHT-SHELL ROCKET

A British night listening-patrol trapped in the glare of a star shell, in danger of being fired at by the enemy. They are lying in No Man's Land with their faces to the ground and revolvers clutched for instant use. Away to the left are visible the British wire entanglements from which the patrol had crept.

Compared with the battles of Amiens and Bapaume, the battle of Arras was a comparatively small-scale engagement. It took place on a very narrow front; only ten British divisions took part in it, as against thirteen German divisions identified; and the total captures by the British amounted to only 16,000 prisoners and 200 guns. But, within its limits, it was a really spectacular success; and it led to the most far-reaching results. Once the Hindenburg line had been turned in the north, the German forces farther south fell back in an almost precipitate

forward as far as the line of the Crozat Canal. In this hasty retreat, which was certainly not conducted according to the schedule that Ludendorff had drawn up for himself, many of the German rearguards were cut off and captured, large quantities of war material were left behind, and great havoc was frequently wrought by the British gunners and airmen among the retiring columns.

THE QUESTION OF ATTEMPTING TO STORM THE HINDENBURG LINE.

By the end of the first week of September, the Germans were almost

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everywhere back in approximately the positions they had occupied before March 21. They still held the Flanders ridges; and on the front of the British Third Army they still held strong advanced positions well in front of their main line of resistance. But, on the other hand, the British astride the Arras-Cambrai road, were already holding ground where no Allied forces had

system; they constituted nothing less than a deep defensive zone, bristling with field fortifications so skillfully placed as to render attack, even by artillery, extremely difficult. In the north, where the Hindenburg line had been breached, even the Canal du Nord presented a grave obstacle in the way of a further advance without considering the fortifications.



PORTABLE HOUSES, ON THE FRONT, CALLED NISSEN HUTS

These long portable huts,—somewhat similar to large kennels—are Nissen huts, an invention which vastly reduced the hardships of the winter campaigns. They were not in use until the winter of 1916-17, but as this was an exceptionally severe season in Europe they were especially grateful at this time.

stood since 1914. On the whole, it is fair to say that in the brief space of one month the British armies had won back from the Germans all that they had lost in the disastrous battles of March and April. That armies which had passed so recently through such a supreme ordeal should have been able to accomplish this feat against a numerically superior foe, can only be regarded as a signal testimony to their unconquerable spirit.

Now, however, the British found themselves face to face, on virtually the whole of their active front, with the awe-inspiring defenses of the Hindenburg line. These defenses did not consist merely in a continuous trench

GENERAL HAIG MAKES THE DECISION TO ATTACK IN FORCE.

Had Sir Douglas Haig hesitated before attacking these formidable positions, no one could have blamed him. Though his losses since August 8 had been, in view of the magnitude of the operations undertaken, remarkably small, they were nevertheless considerable in the aggregate, and had made no slight inroads on his available reserves. The Germans facing him were still in great strength, and they were now occupying positions reputed impregnable. The political effects attendant upon an unsuccessful attack on the Hindenburg line would be most serious. The hopes of the Allies would

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be dashed, and the declining *morale* of the Germans would be revived. The British War Cabinet, in particular, dreaded the casualty lists of another Somme or Passchendaele, and were of opinion that it would be wiser to defer forcing a decision until the spring of 1919, when the American army would be able to take a more effective part in the struggle. Even Foch felt that he

to withdraw to the line of the Meuse, and would, without doubt, find the gravest difficulty in extricating his armies from the clutch of the Allied forces. It was therefore arranged that, while the French and the Americans struck north in the Argonne, Haig's armies, reinforced by some American divisions, were to assault the Hindenburg line in the west. As a subsidiary



BRITISH TANK CREW OUT FOR AIRING

No doubt if the war had lasted longer German ingenuity would have discovered some answer to the tank. At the date of the armistice no adequate counter measures had been found, however, and the Germans were woefully ill-provided with this instrument of war for their factories had little labor and less material for their construction.

Henry Ruschin

could not take the responsibility of ordering the army of another nation to advance against the serried defenses of the Hindenburg system.

It fell therefore to Haig to make the decision alone. With a superb faith in himself and in his men, he decided that the moment was favorable for continuing the offensive: to sit down supinely before the German positions would, he felt, be playing into Ludendorff's hands. If the Allies could, by a pincer-like movement, drive in both re-entrants of the wide salient which the Germans still occupied in northern France, Ludendorff would be compelled

operation, it was also arranged that King Albert's Belgians, in conjunction with the British Second Army, were to attack in Flanders.

THE CANADIANS AGAIN SHINE IN THE BATTLE OF CAMBRAI.

During the second and third weeks of September, the British had been engaged in driving the Germans out of the advanced positions which they occupied in front of their main zone of resistance. This struggle, which was in itself a battle of no small proportions, and which yielded the British nearly 12,000 prisoners and 100 guns, was completely successful; and by Septem-

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ber 26 the British were ready for the great adventure.

On the night of September 26-27 the British guns opened up a terrific bombardment on the whole front of the British First, Third, and Fourth Armies from the Sensée River to the neighbourhood of St. Quentin. Then, in the half-light of early dawn, the battle was opened by an attack made by the

Farther south, the British, having everywhere forced the passage of the Canal du Nord, pushed on to the very outskirts of Cambrai, and south of Cambrai established themselves on the east bank of the Scheldt Canal, beyond which lay at last the open country. On the whole front the advance reached a depth of five or six miles; and the first day of the battle



AN AREA OF VAIN HOPES AND GRIM DESPAIR

Section of the débris-strewn canal in La Bassée evacuated by the Germans, October 3, 1918. Gallant fighting occurred in the storming of the canals behind which in successive stages the German armies retreated. In some instances the canals were turned, in others assaulting troops swam or waded across and captured the German trenches on the eastern banks.

Fourth, Sixth, Seventeenth, and Canadian Corps on the line of the Canal du Nord in front of Cambrai. This attack, which was intended to serve the double object of still further outflanking the Hindenburg line to the south, and of drawing off the German reserves from that sector, went from the first like clockwork. The Canadians, passing over the canal by means of a narrow "bottle-neck" of only 2,500 yards, spread out fanwise, and broke deeply into the German positions, capturing the ill-omened Bournon Wood—the scene of bitter struggles in November, 1917—and threatening Cambrai from the north.

alone procured for the British 10,000 prisoners and 200 guns. As usual, the number of German divisions engaged was much larger than the number of British: the four Canadian divisions, for example, encountered and defeated no less than ten German divisions.

HOW THE HINDENBURG LINE WAS FINALLY BROKEN.

Meanwhile, the artillery of the British Fourth Army, facing the main Hindenburg line, had been continuing the furious bombardment begun on the night of September 26. For two days the avalanche of shells descended on the German positions, driving the garrisons to take refuge in their deep

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tunnels and dugouts, and effectually cutting off their sources of food and ammunition supply. Then, on the morning of September 29, when the success of the attack opposite Cambrai had been assured, the infantry of the Fourth Army advanced on a front of twelve miles, between Holnon and Vendhuille, and supported by a strong force of tanks, manned by both British

battle-line was the result of General Pershing's generous offer to Foch, on the latter's appointment as Generalissimo, of all his available forces, to be used in whatever way Foch saw fit. Already British and American troops had on a number of occasions fought side by side. In November, 1917, American railway engineers—the first American soldiers, it would



PLATOON OF THE 118TH INFANTRY REGIMENT

This regiment belonged to the Thirtieth Division which with the Twenty-Seventh participated in the Battle of the Hindenburg Line and the subsequent attacks of the Second American Corps on the British Front. Of the seventy-eight Medals of Honor awarded in the war twelve were bestowed on members of the Thirtieth Division, six of whom belonged to the 118th Infantry. U. S. Official

and American troops, assaulted the heart of the Hindenburg system. On the left flank, the attack was protected by the British Third Army, which was already in motion; and on the right, the attack was continued by the French First Army in the sector about St. Quentin.

The assault of the British Fourth Army, which was in truth the culminating feature of the British campaign up to this point, was carried out by the British Third and Ninth Corps and the American Second Corps, with the Australian Corps in support. The presence of American troops in the

seem, to take part in battle on the Western Front—had volunteered to help repel the German counter-attack at Cambrai; and in March, 1918, other American railway troops had formed part of the miscellaneous force with which General Carey had stopped the road to Amiens. Several companies of American infantry, attached for instruction to the Australians, had gone over the top in the battle of Hamel on July 4 (against orders, but much had to be forgiven them on such a day), and they had won the somewhat critical approval of the Australians, who are reported to have de-

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scribed them as good lads, but a bit too rough! In the battle of Amiens, on August 8, the 33rd American Division had distinguished itself in the fighting north of the Somme; and during the German evacuation of the Lys salient in the beginning of September, the 27th American Division had recaptured Kemmel Hill. Now, however, the entire American Second Corps of two

tanks, the Germans had fortified it with especial care, connecting the tunnel by shafts with the trenches above it, and strengthening its defenses by means of every device that the wit of men could devise. Yet, preceded by an intense artillery barrage, and accompanied by a fleet of tanks, the American 30th Division broke right through the deep defensive



ON THE CAMBRAI-ST. QUENTIN FRONT

The Americans shown in this picture are not in regular trenches. That class of warfare was left behind after the battles of August, 1918, but nevertheless in the course of the pursuit machine-gun nests were made and concealed in thickets and forests. Such a post could command a whole slope, a road, an open field.

divisions, the 27th and the 30th, stood in the centre of the British battle-front in the supreme effort of the campaign.

THE SHARE OF THE AMERICAN CORPS IN THE ATTACK.

The sector assigned to the Americans was that facing the Bellicourt tunnel. This was a tunnel, some 6,000 yards long, through which ran the Scheldt Canal, a wide flooded cutting which constituted on this part of the front the backbone of the Hindenburg defense system. Since the disappearance of the canal underground exposed this sector to an attack by the dreaded

zone constituting the German main line, and after bitter fighting captured the villages of Bellicourt and Nauroy. After the Americans had passed, it is true, the German machine-gunners came up from their subterranean shelters, and opened fire on them from the rear; but the Australians, coming up in support, "mopped up" these pests, and the breach in the Hindenburg line was made secure. On the left, the 27th American Division was less fortunate. A westerly bend in the canal exposed its left flank to the enfilade fire of the German artillery and machine guns on the farther bank,

and it was subjected to heavy German counter-attacks; but it pushed on and finally captured Bony.

Meanwhile, the British had carried the line of the Scheldt Canal at several points both to the north and to the south. The Third Army had secured



GERMAN POST IN LA BASSÉE

The British contingent in the Army of the Belgians on October 2 made an advance astride of La Bassée Canal which threatened Lens from the northwest.

the crossings of the canal south-west of Cambrai; and the British 12th and 18th Divisions succeeded in forcing their way across the canal north of the Bellicourt tunnel, thus relieving the pressure on the American left. To the south of the Bellicourt tunnel, the British 46th Division, equipped with life-belts borrowed from the Channel steamboats, performed a brilliant feat of arms by swimming across the canal, storming the German defenses on the eastern side, outflanking the German positions farther south, and capturing in the first day of their attack no less than 4,000 prisoners and 70 guns.

THE CAPTURE OF THE HINDENBURG LINE A SUPERLATIVE ACHIEVEMENT.

During the following days these striking successes were followed up on the whole front. On September 30 the 1st British Division, on the extreme right of the British line, crossed the canal north of St. Quentin, and thus facilitated the capture of St. Quentin by the French the following day. The Australians, passing through the Americans, carried the line forward to the hindmost elements of the Hindenburg system. By October 3 the Fourth Army broke clean through into the open country beyond this last line; and by October 5 the whole of the Scheldt Canal, together with the defenses adjacent to it, was in British hands. The impossible had been achieved. The Hindenburg line had fallen; and there remained nothing between the Germans and the Meuse but the natural obstacles of the open countryside and a few sketchy trenches which the Germans, relying on the impregnability of the Hindenburg line, had not bothered to finish.

The very completeness of the British success, in which the three British Armies engaged captured the grand total of 36,500 prisoners and 380 guns, is apt to blind one to the magnitude of their achievement. Yet no words are adequate to do justice to the courage of those who planned the attack, or the gallantry of those who carried it out. Thirty British and two American infantry divisions, with one British cavalry division, had advanced against thirty-nine German divisions entrenched in the strongest field fortifications of which history has any record; and in a few days they had won a full-orbed victory. Their glory can never die.

THE LAST BATTLE OF YPRES FOUGHT UNDER THE KING OF THE BELGIANS.

Conjointly with the attack on Cambrai and the Hindenburg line, it will be remembered, a subsidiary attack had been planned in Flanders, to be delivered by the Belgian Army and the Second British Army. The primary object of this last battle of Ypres was to regain the Flanders ridges and loosen



THE HÔTEL DE VILLE, ST. QUENTIN

St. Quentin in the centre of the Hindenburg line was occupied on October 1 by the Fourth British Army under Rawlinson and the First French under Débeney. It lost its value for the Germans as a key to the trunk line between France, Belgium and Northern Germany after their retreat to the Hindenburg Line in the spring of 1917, but recovered its importance after their offensive of March, 1918.



GRANDE PLACE, DOUAI

Only the shell of what had been a fair and smiling city remained when the Allies entered Douai in the autumn of 1918. Bombardment by heavy long-distance guns and by long-range bombing aeroplanes with attendant fire and explosions had played freakish tricks, in one place leaving homes intact, and in another nothing but scattered masses of brick.

British Official

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the German hold on the Flanders coast; the ultimate object was to threaten the safety of Ludendorff's line of retreat through Belgium to Germany.

The battle was joined, on a front of about seventeen miles, north and south of Ypres, on the morning of September 28. The Belgians, assisted by some French divisions, attacked north of the

found themselves in a decided numerical superiority; and they were able consequently to sweep all before them. They not only took in their stride the whole of the Flanders ridges, overrunning in a few hours the ground which it had taken months to capture in 1917; but the Belgians pushed on through the Houthulst Forest, and by October 1 they were on the outskirts



LILLE LINEN MILLS DESTROYED BY THE GERMANS

Destroyed machinery in one of the large linen mills in Lille as it was left by the Germans as part of their deliberate attempt to retard the economic recovery of the city. Lille had been in the hands of the enemy since October 13, 1914, and had suffered many things in her captivity.

Ypres-Zonnebeke road, and the British Second Army, which was placed for the time being under the command of the gallant King of the Belgians, advanced south of the road. The result was an unexpectedly brilliant success. Ludendorff, driven to his wits' end to find troops with which to stem the advance of the British opposite Cambrai, and relying perhaps on the Flanders weather, which had already broken, to render the ground in the Ypres sector a sufficient obstacle to an Allied attack, had stripped his line here of all but five divisions. For the first time in many months the Allies

of Roulers, while the British advanced to within two miles of Menin, recaptured the Messines Ridge, and forced the Germans to evacuate Armentières. The British advance, in fact, brought about a German retirement on the whole front from Armentières to Lens, and menaced, for the first time, the German hold on Lille.

THE GERMAN HIGH COMMAND FACES THE INEVITABLE.

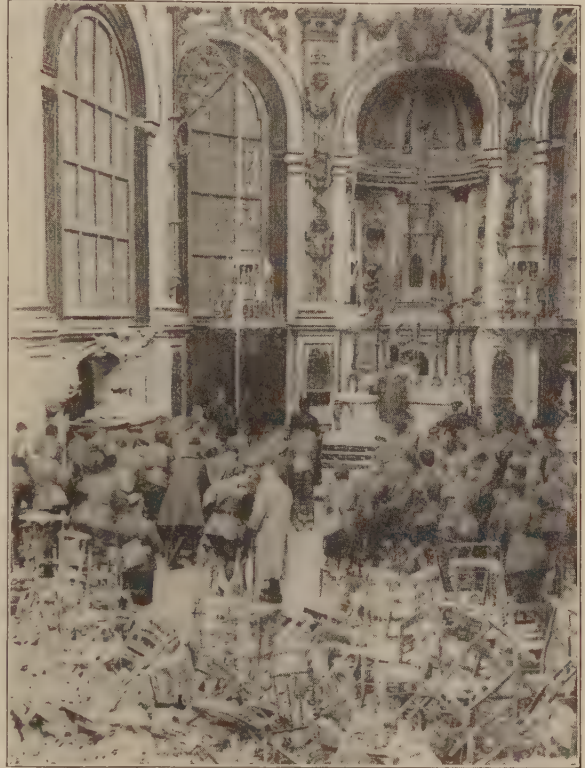
This series of crushing victories won by the British and the Belgians, combined with the Franco-American advance which took place simultaneously in the Argonne, finally broke down the

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nerve of the German High Command. Driven from their last and strongest prepared positions, with units shattered and diminished beyond repair, and with losses in guns and other war material which alone would have sufficed to cripple them, they saw nothing before them but irreparable disaster. Once the Hindenburg line had been carried, Foch began to press forward on the whole front from the North Sea to Verdun; and the problem of withdrawing their beaten and demoralized armies under such conditions filled the German staff with dismay. It would appear that as early as the evening of September 28 Ludendorff decided that he must throw up the sponge. On September 29 Hindenburg and Ludendorff had a conference with the Kaiser and the Foreign Secretary at General Headquarters, and insisted that an immediate request for an armistice should be made. The Kaiser and Hindenburg proceeded immediately to Berlin; and on October 4 Prince Max of Baden succeeded Count Hertling as Imperial Chancellor. The following day Prince Max of Baden dispatched to President Wilson the request for an armistice which Ludendorff demanded.

In order to make assurance double sure, Ludendorff had sent to Berlin with Hindenburg a staff officer to explain to the party leaders of the Reichstag the military situation; and the statement which this officer presented throws a flood of light on the condition of the German army at this juncture. "In spite of using every possible device," he reported, "the strength of our battalions sank from about 800 in April to 540 by the end of September. And these numbers were only secured by the disbanding of 22 infantry divisions. . . . There is no prospect whatever of raising the strength. The current reserves, con-

sisting of men who are convalescent, combed out men, etc., will not even cover the losses of a quiet winter campaign. The inclusion of the 1900 class will only increase the strength of the battalions by 100, and that is the last of our reserves." The losses of officers and non-commissioned officers



TE DEUM AND NON NOBIS

Some of the Canadian troops who took Cambrai offering thanksgiving for peace in the Cathedral which was left almost in ruins by the vanished Germans.

had been exceptionally high. But the most disturbing feature of the situation had been the inability of the Germans to cope with the tanks. "Tanks broke through our foremost lines, making a way for their infantry, reaching our rear, and causing local panics which completely upset our battle control." "Every day the situation may become worse, and give the enemy the opportunity of recognizing our weakness, which might have the most evil consequences for peace prospects as well as for the military situation."

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THE CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY SLOWS UP THE ADVANCE.

During the later stages of the battle for the Hindenburg line there were many signs that the German front was collapsing. Though the German machine-guns and artillery were still served with valor and devotion, the German infantry now began to surrender in ever increasing numbers at the slightest provocation, and chaos reigned in the supply and transport services. Fortunately for the Germans, however, it had now become increasingly difficult for the Allies to reap the fruits of victory. On the Flanders front the absence of adequate means of communication in the devastated area of the Ypres salient prevented the Belgians from capturing Roulers until October 14. Cambrai was practically enveloped by September 30; but such was the difficulty the supply services experienced in bridging the battlefield that the town was not occupied until October 9. Farther south, as we have seen, St. Quentin was captured by the French on October 1; but, though the Germans began immediately to withdraw from the St. Gobain salient, they were able to do so gradually, and by October 10 the French were only eight miles beyond St. Quentin.

LUDENDORFF TRIES TO RALLY WHILE THE DIPLOMATS PARLEY.

The difficulty which the Allies experienced in following up their successes of the end of September roused a spark of hope in Ludendorff's breast. It now became clear that the danger of a collapse of the German armies was not so immediate as he had feared; and he began to think there might still be a good chance of making an effective stand while the German statesmen parleyed with the enemy in the gate. His plan was to withdraw in Flanders to the line of the Scheldt north of Valenciennes, and in France to the partially completed line running north-east of the Hindenburg line from Valenciennes to the Oise in the neighbourhood of Guise. The danger spot in this line—which was known to the Germans as the Hermann position—was the

sector opposite Cambrai, for the British here were already nearer the Meuse at Namur than were the German forces in western Belgium. But the German defenses in this sector, though they consisted in nothing more than a thin belt of wire and a half-dug trench line, lay behind the River Selle; and Ludendorff hoped that, by flooding the Selle, and by massing his available forces at this point, he might still make good his stand.

The plan met with a modicum of success. By the time King Albert's Belgians were able to resume their advance beyond the wilderness of the Ypres salient, the German arrangements for withdrawal were well advanced; and though the German rear-guards were hard pressed, and much war material fell into the hands of the Allies, the retreat was successfully carried out. On October 17 the Belgians occupied Ostend without fighting; on October 18 the British found Lille empty of the Germans; and by October 22 the Germans had evacuated the whole of the Flanders coast, and had taken up their new positions along the line of the Scheldt between Ghent and Valenciennes. In the south, between St. Quentin and Rheims, the withdrawal from the St. Gobain salient was also fairly well conducted. Only in the Cambrai sector were the Germans unable to retreat according to plan. Here the British, in what is known as the second battle of Le Cateau, unceremoniously hustled the Germans back to the Hermann position, and took from them no less than 12,000 prisoners and 250 guns. Over the very fields where Smith-Dorrien had fought for a chance to escape from the clutches of von Kluck over four years before, the British Fourth Army, with the 2nd American Corps in the centre of its battle-line, now drove the Germans headlong. But behind the Selle River Ludendorff was able to rally his dispirited and disorganized troops, and here also to make good his stand. By the middle of October, therefore, he had everywhere successfully occupied his new positions, and he was able to

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make to the German cabinet a much more sanguine report regarding the outlook than he had been able to make at the beginning of the month.

LUDENDORFF LOSES THE BATTLE OF THE SELLE.

Foch, however, did not intend to give Ludendorff a chance to stabilize his front. Even while the German commander was endeavoring to per-

south of Le Cateau, in conjunction with the French First Army on the right. The Germans, who had massed all their available forces behind the flooded Selle, in anticipation of just such an attack, fought with a courage born of despair; and the Americans had a particularly bitter task in carrying the embankments and cuttings of the Le Cateau-Solesmes rail-



OSTEND AFTER RE-OCCUPATION BY THE BELGIANS

On October 16 the great retreat of the Germans from Western Belgium began under the ever-accelerating pressure of the Allies. On the 17th, Ostend and Zeebrugge, submarine bases on the coast whose effectiveness had already been greatly lessened by the British naval raids of April and May, were evacuated.

suade the German statesmen that there was no longer any cause for despair, Foch was once more poising the thunder-bolt in his hand. The Americans and the French were already battling their way forward through the so-called Kriemhilde positions north of the Argonne; and Foch now proposed to repeat the pincer-like movement of his earlier battles by launching a thrust against the Hermann positions along the Selle.

The first attack was delivered in the early hours of October 17 by the 9th, 2nd American, and 13th Corps of the British Fourth Army in the sector

way line, where the German machine-gunners made a stubborn stand. For two days the struggle continued. Then the German resistance gradually broke down; and the battle ended with the Germans thrust back behind the Sambre River and the Oise Canal.

This first phase of the fighting was followed up on the night of October 19-20 by an attack delivered by divisions of the British First and Third Armies on the line of the Selle northwest of Le Cateau. Under cover of the darkness of a misty night, the British bridged the river under the very nose of the foe, and, with the assistance of

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tanks smuggled over the bridges, they carried the German defenses on the further bank, despite a resistance which was once again stubborn and desperate. Then, on October 23, the concluding phase of the struggle began with a general advance of the British Fourth, Third, and First Armies on their whole front from the Sambre to the Scheldt. On the right the Germans

FILLED WITH DESPAIR LUDENDORFF RESIGNS HIS COMMAND.

The situation confronting the German army was now most critical. If the Germans were to make a successful and orderly retirement to the line of the Meuse, it was essential that they should hold back the Americans north of the Argonne and the British east of Cambrai, in order that the forces



GERMAN GUNS CAPTURED IN BRITISH ADVANCE

A report dated the middle of October 1918 states that in their three months' offensive so far the Allies had captured on the Western Front more than 4,600 pieces, or a third of the German artillery on the Western Front and a quarter of the whole. As the retreat gathered momentum many more guns were, of necessity, abandoned.

British Official

were thrown back into the Mormal Forest; on the left the British reached the outskirts of Valenciennes; and the net result was that a breach was made in the Hermann position some thirty-five miles wide and some six miles deep—a breach that left the German High Command no alternative to a further retirement. In the three phases of the battle the twenty-four British and two American divisions had engaged thirty-one German divisions, and had wrested from them a total of about 20,000 prisoners and 475 guns. Two other American divisions, the 37th and 91st were with the French in Belgium.

retiring from the St. Gobain salient and the forces along the Scheldt might be able to get clear; but this was exactly what they had failed to do. The problem of withdrawing the far-flung battle-line of the German armies in Flanders and Northern France through the bottle-neck of eastern Belgium would have been difficult in any case; but now that the danger spots in the line had caved in, the problem became almost hopeless. By this time, moreover, not only the German people but even the German army had lost confidence in the High Command. Far from fulfilling the

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promises of victory which he had made, Ludendorff now stood convicted of miscalculation in regard to the guarantees he had so recently given as to his ability to hold up the Allied advance. Completely discredited, he tendered his resignation for the second time on October 26; and this time it was accepted. The following day he left General Headquarters, and Hin-

do of a drive begun in the grey dawn of November 1 against the German positions in the Valenciennes sector by two British Corps and the Canadian Corps, the latter having been transferred thither from the Cambrai front for the purpose of this operation. The Germans put up a gallant resistance—almost the last really stubborn stand they were to make. But the Canadians



THE RETURN OF THE TIDE AFTER MANY DAYS

Irish Guards on duty at the Mons Gate of the city of Maubeuge, which had been held by the Germans for fifty months ever since the opening days of war. It was one of the ironies that war was full of that so many units who had retreated in 1914 now found themselves over the same ground with their faces set the other way.

denburg remained to cope with the situation alone, though von Groener nominally succeeded Ludendorff.

THE BATTLE OF THE SAMBRE PREPARES THE WAY FOR THE FINAL BLOW.

In order to complete the discomfiture of the German armies, all that now remained for the Allies to do was to keep up their pressure, and especially to keep it up at the crucial points where they had already driven in the German line. Accordingly, on November 1, while the Americans north of the Argonne made another push in the direction of Sedan, the British struck again towards Maubeuge and Namur. The first stage of the attack consisted

succeeded in capturing Valenciennes; and the loss of this pivot of the German line forced the Germans to make a further retirement—a retirement which gave Sir Douglas Haig elbow-room for his final and knock-out blow.

This blow was delivered by the British Fourth, Third, and First Armies on the whole front of thirty miles from the Sambre to Valenciennes on the morning of November 4. The result of the blow was decisive. The Fourth Army, which was now fighting on the very ground over which Haig's First Corps had passed in the retreat from Mons, stormed the line of the Sambre, and captured Valenciennes. The Third

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Army, in the centre, swept through the Mormal Forest, and the New Zealand Division captured the old fortified town of Le Quesnoy, with its entire garrison. The First Army, on the left, followed up its victory at Valenciennes by a pursuit of the retreating Germans, and crossed the River Aunelle. On the whole front the three armies advanced to an average depth of five

advantage of the targets afforded their bombs and machine-guns. On November 8 the Germans along the Scheldt gave way before the mere threat of an Allied attack; and the British Fifth and Second Armies, with French and American divisions on their left, moved forward in full pursuit. On November 9 the British Guards Division entered the great fortress of Maubeuge; and in



THE SOUTH PORTAL OF THE ST. QUENTIN CANAL

Between Bellicourt and Vendhuile the St. Quentin (or Scheldt) Canal passes through a tunnel six kilometres (about three and three-quarter miles) long. The Hindenburg line lay along the canal, and shafts were sunk connecting the tunnel with the trenches above. The front held by the Twenty-seventh and Thirtieth Divisions included this tunnel. After the Americans had forced their way across the canal Germans came up behind them from their shelter in the tunnel.

Pictures, U. S. Official

miles, capturing 19,000 prisoners and more than 450 guns.

THE CANADIANS TAKE MONS, LOST FOUR YEARS BEFORE, ON ARMISTICE DAY.

This crowning victory definitely broke down the German resistance. The retreat of the German armies now became a *saute qui peut*, and they were never again able to rally. The German lines of communication fell into a confusion thrice confounded. Roads, railways, and canals all became hopelessly congested with the converging streams of traffic; and the Allied air-men, swarming overhead in pursuit, intensified the chaos by taking full

the early morning of November 11, only a few hours before the armistice which the German government had at last negotiated came into effect, the Canadians, by a final dramatic stroke of fortune, captured the never-to-be-forgotten town of Mons, where the British army had first joined battle with the Germans nearly four and a half years before.

THE BRITISH ARMY AND THE END OF THE STRUGGLE.

With the cessation of hostilities at 11 A. M. on November 11, the "Battle of France" was over. The once proud German armies had been defeated

beyond hope or power of recovery; and the strategic plans of Foch and Haig had been realized with a completeness rarely seen in warfare. As for the part which the British armies had played in achieving this remarkable result, no testimony could be more eloquent than the bare recital of the statistics of the struggle. In the course of three short months, the 59 fighting divisions of the British army alone had engaged and defeated no less than 99 separate German divisions, for the most part entrenched in the strongest battle positions; they had driven them back from before Arras and Amiens to a line well beyond the northern border of France; and they had taken 187,000 prisoners and 2,850 guns—totals beside which the captures of the Germans in their March offensive pale into insignificance.

THE ARMISTICE IN REALITY A COMPLETE SURRENDER.

Nothing probably saved the Germans, during the concluding days of the struggle, from suffering a new and greater Sedan but the difficulties experienced by the Allies, and especially by the British, in getting forward. By the beginning of November the British troops were already very far in advance of their railheads; the

weather had broken; and the Germans found time to give full play to their old-time thoroughness and ingenuity in making demolitions. As they retreated, moreover, they liberated hundreds of thousands of starving civilians, and these unfortunates were thrown on the mercy of the British commissariat. The Canadians alone, in their advance from Valenciennes to Mons, had to take on their ration strength no fewer than 70,000 liberated French and Belgian civilians. All these factors threw an unprecedented strain on the British supply services, and in some cases prevented the British from even keeping in touch with the fleeing foe.

But though the end of the struggle might have been more spectacular, it could not have been more decisive. Had hostilities continued after November 11, the transport and supply difficulties on the British front, combined with the British weakness in cavalry, might have postponed for some time the capture or dissolution of the German armies; but the struggle, no matter how long it was protracted, could have ended in only way—in the annihilation of the German resistance and in the armed invasion of Germany.

W. S. WALLACE.



AN ACTUAL CHARGE IN THE FIELD

The photographer seldom was able to get a good picture of a charge, and this is a veritable treasure. Two companies of the 326th Infantry, Eighty-second Division are shown advancing at the double while the 307th Engineers ahead are blowing up the wire entanglements. The men belong to companies M and K. U. S. Official



AN AIRPLANE VIEW OF EPINONVILLE

The Ninety-first Division made an unexpected amount of ground in its drive forward in the Meuse-Argonne on September 26, and advanced patrols reached the village of Epinonville. The strength of the German trenches is indicated very clearly in the picture. The division had never been under fire before when it was placed in line for the Meuse-Argonne offensive. It was made up of men from the far West. U. S. Official



Leviathan in the North River

CHAPTER LXXV

St. Mihiel and the Meuse-Argonne

TWO MAJOR OPERATIONS UNDERTAKEN WITHIN TWO WEEKS BY A NEW ARMY

EDITED BY MAJOR GEORGE C. MARSHALL, JR.

General Staff, U. S. A.

IN the early days of September, 1918, General Pershing commanded about a million and a half men in France, of whom nearly one million were combatant troops in various stages of readiness for active service. As already mentioned, the First American Army had been formed, and it had been agreed that its first operation would be the reduction of the St. Mihiel salient. This project had been discussed for more than a year and now was to provide the American Army with an opportunity to show its quality as an independent force.

THE SUGGESTION THAT THE AMERICAN FORCES CONTINUE TO ASSIST THE FRENCH.

The moment which General Pershing had so long eagerly awaited seemed at hand. If successful at St. Mihiel, the American army was to co-operate with the Allies in a larger operation, which would prepare the way for final success in 1919. At the end of July no military leader had hopes of concluding the war in 1918. The British and the French, however, met with unlooked-for success between Amiens and Montdidier on August 9, and while not expecting to drive the German armies entirely out of France in 1918, Marshal Foch now hoped to greatly improve the

situation of the Allies before winter. Therefore, on August 30 he proposed to General Pershing that the new American First Army be broken up after the St. Mihiel operation, one portion to assist the Second French Army between the Meuse and the Argonne Forest, while another should fight on both sides of the Aisne on the right of the Fourth French Army.

GENERAL PERSHING REFUSES TO BREAK UP HIS ARMY.

To this proposition General Pershing was unwilling to consent. His position is thus stated in his own words: "The plan suggested for the American participation in these operations was not acceptable to me because it would require the immediate separation of the recently formed First American Army into several groups, mainly to assist French armies. This was directly contrary to the principle of forming a distinct American Army, for which my contention had been insistent. * * * The inherent disinclination of our troops to serve under allied commanders would have grown and American morale would have suffered. My position was stated quite clearly that the strategical employment of the First Army as a unit would be undertaken where desired, but its disruption to

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carry out these proposals would not be entertained."

At a second meeting on September 2nd, at which General Pétain was present, General Pershing's demand was conceded, and he then expressed a preference for the difficult Meuse-Argonne front for the American Army, as he felt the aggressive enthusiasm of the American soldier best fitted him

the Meuse south of Verdun, and had captured Fort Camp des Romains at St. Mihiel, the only one of the French line of barrier forts which they were able to hold. This pocket driven into France was a standing threat to Verdun, and cut the Paris-Nancy and the Commercy-Verdun railways. During the winter of 1914-1915 and the summer of 1915 the French had made des-



AREA OF FRANCO-AMERICAN OPERATIONS ON THE ST. MIHIEL FRONT

The American Army lay on both flanks of the salient, with French Colonial troops at the point. The latter, however, were not to make an assault. The line of September 15 shows the amount of territory reclaimed for France and also shows the danger to German occupation of Metz.

for the task. Accordingly it was agreed that he should first assume command of the St. Mihiel front and later take over the additional front extending westward to include the Argonne, 150 kilometers (93 miles) in all. The French divisions located in this zone were to pass under his command. The St. Mihiel operation was first to be completed, after which he was to attack between the Meuse and the western edge of the Argonne Forest not later than September 26.

THE ST. MIHIEL SALIENT HAD ENDURED FOUR YEARS.

The St. Mihiel salient was a survival of the first weeks of the war. German forces in September, 1914, had reached

perate but fruitless attempts to reduce the salient. Strong by nature, it had been reinforced by every possible means. With the construction of a new railway line into Verdun its importance had slightly decreased and the front here had been quiet for three years.

Preparations for the American attack were made as secretly as possible, but the Germans heard rumors of the impending assault and this perhaps hastened their determination to withdraw, not so much because of fear, as in order to shorten their line in view of the British attacks further north. Arrangements for evacuation were being made while the American forces were assembling, but apparently the



A VIEW OF THE TOWN OF ST. MIHIEL

St. Mihiel had been under German sway since the first weeks of the war. The French in their attacks during 1914 and 1915 attempted to spare the town as much as possible, and this portion shows comparatively little damage. The town is situated on the Meuse and was an attractive French provincial town, of considerable wealth.



VIEW OF ANOTHER PORTION OF ST. MIHIEL

Down nearer to the Meuse the town had suffered more, and here only the bare walls with their gaping windows like sightless eyes are left. When the German forces were obliged to evacuate the salient in September, 1918, the inhabitants could hardly contain themselves. Flags which had been hidden during the whole four years with infinite care and much danger, made their appearance immediately to welcome the troops.

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German commanders did not dream that the attack was imminent or would be of such magnitude.

THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE FORCE FOR THE OFFENSIVE.

From Les Eparges around the nose of the salient to the Moselle River was about 40 miles. The main attack was directed against the southern face of the salient, the First Corps under

the secondary attack. In reserve were the Seventy-eighth, Third, Thirty-fifth and Ninety-first Divisions and the Eightieth and Thirty-third were within reach if needed. Including reserves, about 500,000 men, of whom 70,000 were French, could be used in the operation. This was the largest American Army which had ever engaged in a single operation.



FRENCH AND AMERICAN TANKS AT ST. MIHIEL

Major General Hunter Liggett (Eighty-second, Ninetieth, Fifth and Second Divisions) on the right, with the Fourth Corps under Major General J. T. Dickman (Eighty-ninth, Forty-second and First Divisions) on its left. Extending around the tip of the salient lay the Second French Colonial Corps with three small French divisions which were to follow up the retreat of the enemy when his flanks were penetrated by the American troops. This French Corps was not called on to carry out an assault. Facing the western flank of the salient was the Fifth Corps, under Major General George B. Cameron (Twenty-sixth, Fifteenth French, and Fourth Divisions) which was to make

Plans were carefully made, so carefully that General Pétain to whom they were submitted for criticism did not suggest a single change. The salient was to be pinched off at the base by attacks against the flanks. The main attack from the south was to pivot on the centre division of the First Corps. The Eighty-second astride the Moselle just north of Pont-à-Mousson on the extreme right of the army, was not to advance except as necessary to cover the flank of the division (Ninetieth) on its left. The same applied to the Fourth Division on the opposite flank of the army. On the left of the Third Corps the First Division, advancing from the south, was to make contact

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with the Twenty-sixth, advancing from the west, near the village of Vigneulles in the heart of the salient, thus catching in a trap, the Germans remaining in the point of the salient. The new line would then be swung from Pont-à-Mousson to Fresnes-en-Woevre.

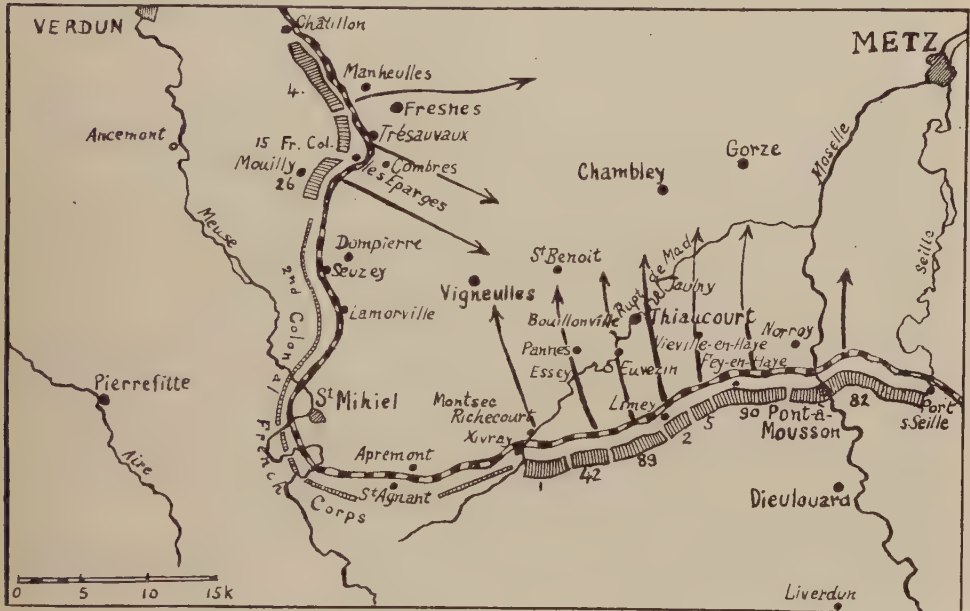
BRITISH AND FRENCH CO-OPERATION IN THE ATTACK.

The French authorities co-operated in every way. As already mentioned, four small French divisions were in line.

German headquarters reported. In fact the heavy guns reached the railway station at Metz, hindering the sending of reinforcements, and the lighter guns sought out trench and dug-out, pill box and gun emplacement.

THE ATTACK BEGUN WITH A RUSH ON THE SOUTH.

Accompanied by tanks the infantry of the First and Fourth Corps advanced with a rush at daylight. The Twenty-sixth on the western face of the salient



PLAN OF THE ST. MIHIEL OPERATIONS, SEPT. 12, 13, 1918

General Pétain also furnished tanks, and the crews for nearly half of them, cannon both light and heavy, trench mortars, and airplanes. In addition the French Independent Air Force was placed at General Pershing's disposal and the British Bombing Squadron in eastern France was to lend assistance.

If the German command had hoped to evacuate the salient before the American attack it was doomed to disappointment. About one o'clock on the morning of September 12th, in the midst of a heavy rain storm, a furious bombardment began all along the front of the First and Fourth Corps. "The batteries fired with great precision, not only on our first lines but also on our rear communications," the

did not move until eight o'clock in order to give the artillery a longer period of preparatory fire. The barrage was excellent and the troops cut or walked over the first wire. Few Germans were found in the first line trenches, but in the second and third resistance was a little stiffer. Airplanes flying low over the roads and trenches threw the German troops into confusion. In many cases squads or even platoons surrendered without resistance.

Every division had its objective, and a glance at the map above will make clear the course of the operation. The Ninetieth on the extreme right had only a limited advance to make but it included the Norroy quarries

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reputed impregnable. The objective was reached about four o'clock in the afternoon. The Fifth reached its appointed goal with little loss. Almost at a bound the Second not only seized Thiaucourt but occupied the hills beyond and took 3000 prisoners. The Eighty-ninth took its two villages and the Forty-second took four, all defended with more or less zeal.

THE PROGRESS OF THE ATTACK AGAINST THE WESTERN FACE.

Meanwhile the Twenty-sixth had been advancing from the west, and in the early morning of September 13th, its leading patrols entered the village of Vigneulles and gained contact with the First which had advanced fourteen kilometers from the south with the precision of clock-work making "a model of a well-conducted attack," including the passage of four kilometers of dense forest during the night. All objectives were reached during the afternoon of September 13th, thirty hours after the advance began. The American Army had joined forces across the base of the salient, but did not yet know all that was cut off behind it. Gloomy Mont Sec had not yet surrendered and there was an extensive wooded area north of St. Mihiel to be explored. In it were parts of a German and an Austrian division, who were glad to surrender with many guns. The American Army had taken sixteen thousand prisoners, 443 guns and vast stores of war material which the Germans had not had time to destroy.

During this time the French had not been idle. The Fifteenth French Colonial Division pounded away at Les Eparges and Combres, protecting the flank of the Twenty-sixth while the Second French Colonial Corps which was to follow up the retirement of the enemy from the tip of the salient pressed forward entering St. Mihiel itself during the night. One division, the Second Dismounted Cavalry, picked up 2500 prisoners with a loss of only 130 men.

On the morning of September 13, General Pershing and General Pétain, and Secretary of War Baker, entered

St. Mihiel, already gay with flags, hidden during the four dreary years preceding. Thither too soon came Premier Clemenceau and President Poincaré, the latter a native of the region, to congratulate the people upon their liberation. The principal street of the little town now bears the name Rue du General Pershing.

THE EFFECTS OF THE OPERATION ON THE WAR.

The American army suffered only 7000 casualties during the advance, most of them slight. Success had come easily. The Germans had been greatly outnumbered and the rapidity of the American advance had quickly overwhelmed resistance without suffering a check. The battle was a great victory; one hundred and fifty square miles of French territory had been redeemed, 16,000 prisoners and much material of war had been taken, and Metz and the Briey iron basin were now in danger. More important than these the American command had planned and executed with complete success, what might have been a difficult operation. The staff of the army, the corps and the divisions had gained invaluable experience which was to serve them well later on, and the French and British had conclusive proof of the arrival of a powerful ally in the battle.

In the ranks of the enemy, despite the efforts of German Headquarters to belittle the American achievement, the news of what had happened spread with depressing effect. The soldiers knew the quality of their British and French opponents. They had been told that German submarines would prevent the Americans from crossing the Atlantic, yet here they were on the battle line—hundreds of thousands of them—and strange stories were told of their prowess. After St. Mihiel German confidence and morale declined with surprising rapidity.

METZ MIGHT EASILY HAVE BEEN TAKEN AT THIS TIME.

The American divisions were eager to go on, to take Metz (which could easily have been pounded into rubbish by the artillery) and to march into Germany. Marshal Foch however,

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had rigidly limited the advance, and the men were forced to content themselves with establishing contact with the strongly fortified Hindenburg Line which the enemy had drawn in 1917 across the base of the salient.

The German High Command, however, expected and feared that the victorious American Army would imme-

still awaiting the attack on Metz, these troops took position between the Meuse and the Argonne Forest. A thin line of French, however, held the front line, serving as a screen for the American concentration until the hour of attack, when they withdrew as the Americans passed through them into the German lines.



CAMP DES ROMAINES IN THE ST. MIHIEL SALIENT

This French fort was made over into a very strong position by the Germans, but it could not withstand the terrific bombardment poured upon it during the American attack. It is shown here after the evacuation. It was the only one of the French barrier forts held for any considerable time by the Germans. N. Y. Times

diately advance upon Metz, and made preparations for a desperate defense of this key to Lorraine. In reality, on September 13, when it had been seen that the attack on St. Mihiel was successful, the reserve divisions and the army artillery were already on their way to a new field, the Meuse-Argonne front, where other divisions were also concentrating. Orders had been issued on September 10, two days before the assault, for the relief of the First and Fifth Corps and three of the divisions in the first line of the attack by the fourth day of the battle—all to be moved to the scene of the next operation. While the German command was

THE EXTENT OF THE SECTOR UNDER GENERAL PERSHING.

As America's portion of the great Allied convergent offensive of September 26th, the most extensive battle in history and the final battle of the World War, the Meuse-Argonne front was accepted by General Pershing, and on September 22 the American line under his command stretched from Port-sur-Seille east of the Moselle, around Verdun and across the Meuse to the western edge of the Argonne. The newly stabilized St. Mihiel front was held by the Fourth Corps and the Second French Colonial Corps. Next came the Seventeenth French Corps

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guarding the Verdun salient. The American troops for the new operation were disposed from the Meuse westward 23 miles to La Harazée in the Argonne. The line from the Meuse to Avocourt had been included in the battles around Verdun, but from Avocourt to the western limit there had been little change since 1914, though hard fighting had occurred both in the Argonne and around Vauquois.



AMERICAN PLANE OVER GERMAN LINES

U. S. Official

The defenses natural and artificial might well have daunted any veteran army. Every device that German ingenuity could suggest had been applied to make the positions impregnable. From the heights east of the Meuse oblique artillery fire could be delivered; Forges Brook with marshy bottom and steep sides was the next obstacle; the heights of Montfaucon gave not only perfect observation but afforded a strong position. Vauquois was one of the strongholds of the German line. The valley of the Aire to the east of the Forest, was exposed throughout its length to crossfire from the bordering bluffs, while the wooded heights

of the Argonne were a network of wire and had been elaborately fortified. Wooded ridges running east and west afforded perfect positions for machine guns and field artillery. In fact this front was fortified to a depth of eighteen or twenty miles, where "the attack must fight blindly; the defense could fight with eyes open."

THE REASONS FOR THE LAVISH SYSTEM OF FORTIFICATIONS.

The reason for this lavish system of fortifications was two-fold. The great railway line from Metz to Lille with from two to four tracks, enabled the German High Command to shift troops rapidly to any portion of the front. The section of this artery between Carignan and Sedan, which paralleled the Meuse-Argonne front, was vital to the supply of the German armies from Cambrai to Verdun. If it were cut the result would be disastrous for the greater part of the enemy's troops would be cut off from retreat and supply and Northern France and Belgium must be evacuated. The second reason lay in the importance of this front as a protection to the Briey Iron Basin from which most of the German iron and steel was obtained. Its loss would terminate Germany's hopes.

For a newly organized army to initiate two major operations within fourteen days seemed impossible, and in this case the divisions designated to open the attack were selected from necessity rather than from choice. Of the nine divisions only three had seen hard fighting. Four had been in quiet sectors from ten days to two months and the other two never had been under fire at all. General Pershing was confident, however, and disposed them from the Meuse to the Argonne in the following order from right to left.

THE DIVISIONS TAKING PART IN THE BATTLE.

The Third Corps under General Robert L. Bullard, extended from the

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east bank of the Meuse to Malancourt with the Thirty-third, Eightieth, and Fourth Divisions in line, and the Third in reserve. The Fifth Corps, under General George B. Cameron, extended from Malancourt to Vauquois, with the Seventy-ninth, Thirty-seventh and Ninety-first Divisions in line, and the Thirty-second in reserve. The First Corps, under General Hunter Liggett, held the remainder of the line, with the Thirty-fifth, Twenty-eighth, and Seventy-seventh Divisions in line, and the Ninety-second in reserve. The army reserve was composed of the First and Eighty-second (both withdrawn from the St. Mihiel front) and the Twenty-ninth Divisions.

Later the remaining six divisions which had taken part in the St. Mihiel offensive, were transferred and the Sixth and Seventy-eighth also took part in the battle. As the Ninety-second was soon transferred to the Moselle region without taking a serious part in the engagement, it will be seen that twenty-two divisions participated in the battle,—if an operation lasting forty-seven days can be so called.

For convenience, the battle has been divided into three phases, the first lasting from September 26th to October 3rd, a period of heavy assaults; the second, from October 4th to 31st, a period of perpetual combat during which ground was gained foot by foot; and the third, from November 1st to 11th, a period of deep and rapid advances against a foe becoming demoralized, but still fighting desperately at some points.

HOW "THE SUCCESS OF LATE SEPTEMBER" WAS GAINED.

General Pershing had for his attack about 2700 guns, 189 small tanks (142 manned by Americans) and 821 airplanes (604 manned by Americans). He lacked horses for artillery and supply trains and had less than half the proper allowance of motor trucks. The French were unable to supply all the horses they had promised, but they furnished almost half the trucks we used. The enemy had no tanks and fewer guns and planes. His artillery, however, was advantageously located,

commanding every road and all ground favorable for the attacker.

On the morning of September 26, the expected attack was launched after a furious bombardment of more than three hours. Following a dense rolling barrage the infantry advanced across "No Man's Land" and quickly overran the enemy's first position. The tanks followed the infan-



ON THE VARENNES ROAD

U. S. Official

try and passed through them as more open country was reached. By nightfall the German second position had been penetrated, except in the centre of the line at Montfaucon. On the extreme left the Seventy-seventh Division made good progress through the thickets of the Argonne. The Twenty-eighth between the Aire and the eastern bluffs of the Argonne reached Montblainville, while the Thirty-fifth on its right carried the formidable heights of Vauquois and the hills beyond Very. The Ninety-first, never before under fire, made a splendid advance through Cheppy Wood and some units reached Epinonville, 9 kilometers from the jump-off, but retired towards Very as

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they had lost connection with the adjacent divisions. Further to the right, the Thirty-seventh made its way through a dense tangle of forests, wire and trenches, emerging somewhat disorganized and unable that evening to carry the Montfaucon ridge in its front. The Seventy-ninth, which had never before been under fire, found

flank of the army, if the Germans should attempt to cross the river here, incidentally taking 1450 prisoners, 29 guns, trench mortars, 59 machine guns, and one engineer depot.

THE OPERATIONS ON THE SECOND AND THIRD DAYS.

Fighting continued without interruption through September 27 and 28,



NANTILLOIS, TAKEN BY THE SEVENTY-NINTH DIVISION

hard work and was checked before Montfaucon until noon of the 27th.

THE ADVANCE OF THE THIRD CORPS ON THE RIGHT.

The advance of the Third Corps was altogether satisfactory. The Fourth carrying duckboards, crossed Forges Brook, and in a brilliant advance swept on beyond Septsarges and through Septsarges Wood though its left flank was entirely in the air, being nearly five kilometers beyond the nearest friendly troops. The Eightieth making its first attack, established its line north of Dannevoux though shelled cruelly from Hill 378 across the river. The Thirty-third, also attacking for the first time, swung around its left to connect with the Eightieth and took position along the Meuse to defend the

and six new German divisions were thrown into battle. Resistance stiffened and much difficulty was experienced in getting up the artillery and supplies. There were but the traces of three roads leading in the direction of the advance—the Fourth Division had no road at all—and transport over the rough or else marshy ground, sloughed by artillery fire was rendered more difficult by constant rains. Just when the infantry needed the support of artillery most the natural difficulties of the terrain slowed up its advance, though all the light guns were across “No Man’s Land” by the afternoon of the 27th.

By the end of the fourth day 9000 prisoners and 100 guns had been captured and a maximum advance of 12

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kilometers had been realized. It was evident however, that hopes of a complete break-through must be abandoned. It had been thought possible that the simultaneous advance of the Fourth French Army west of the Argonne Forest and of the American Army to the east would cause its immediate evacuation without direct attack. The former army had made less progress

"THE INCESSANT FIGHTING OF OCTOBER" —THE SECOND PHASE.

At some points a penetration of seven miles had been achieved, but the line was everywhere opposed by a heavily reinforced enemy in strong positions. Now began, on October 4, four weeks of the most desperate fighting, during which ground was gained foot by foot, with numerous



AMERICAN SOLDIERS COLLECTING GERMAN PRISONERS, ARGONNE

than the Americans and it was now clear that the enemy, already heavily reinforced, must be slowly pushed back in the centre of the line until elbow room could be obtained for launching a flank attack against the Argonne, where the thick underbrush effectually concealed the machine gun nests, making direct assault impossible. The divisions in the centre had suffered severely and, during the night of September 29th, the Thirty-seventh and the Seventy-ninth were relieved by the Thirty-second and Third respectively, and the next night the First relieved the Thirty-fifth. All three of the divisions relieved had met difficult obstacles.

hand to hand engagements. On the first day of the renewed general attack, the Third and Fifth Corps were unable to advance any considerable distance, but the First Division on the right of the First Corps made a deep penetration at the point needed for launching a manoeuvre to outflank the Argonne.

The Seventy-seventh in the Forest had been making slow but steady progress, and incidentally furnished one of the most dramatic incidents of the war. A regiment of the Ninety-second Division had been ordered to go forward between the Fourth French Army and the Forest to maintain connection between the two armies and to

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protect the flanks of both. On October 2, the First Battalion of the 308th Regiment with some elements of the 307th, and of the 306th Machine Gun Company were cut off from the remainder of the division in the heart of the Forest. The Ninety-second had not advanced sufficiently far and the enemy had filtered in behind the units, which were surrounded on all sides.

To give the daily position of each division through the twenty-eight days included in the second phase is manifestly impossible, and only the main points can be touched on. All along the line the Americans pushed forward meeting with stubborn, even desperate resistance, some divisions making considerable gains, others making gains only to lose them by counter-attack.



A CAPTURED GERMAN GUN IN THE WOODS

Summoned to surrender, the commander, Major Charles S. Whittlesey, refused emphatically.

THE ROMANTIC STORY OF THE "LOST BATTALION."

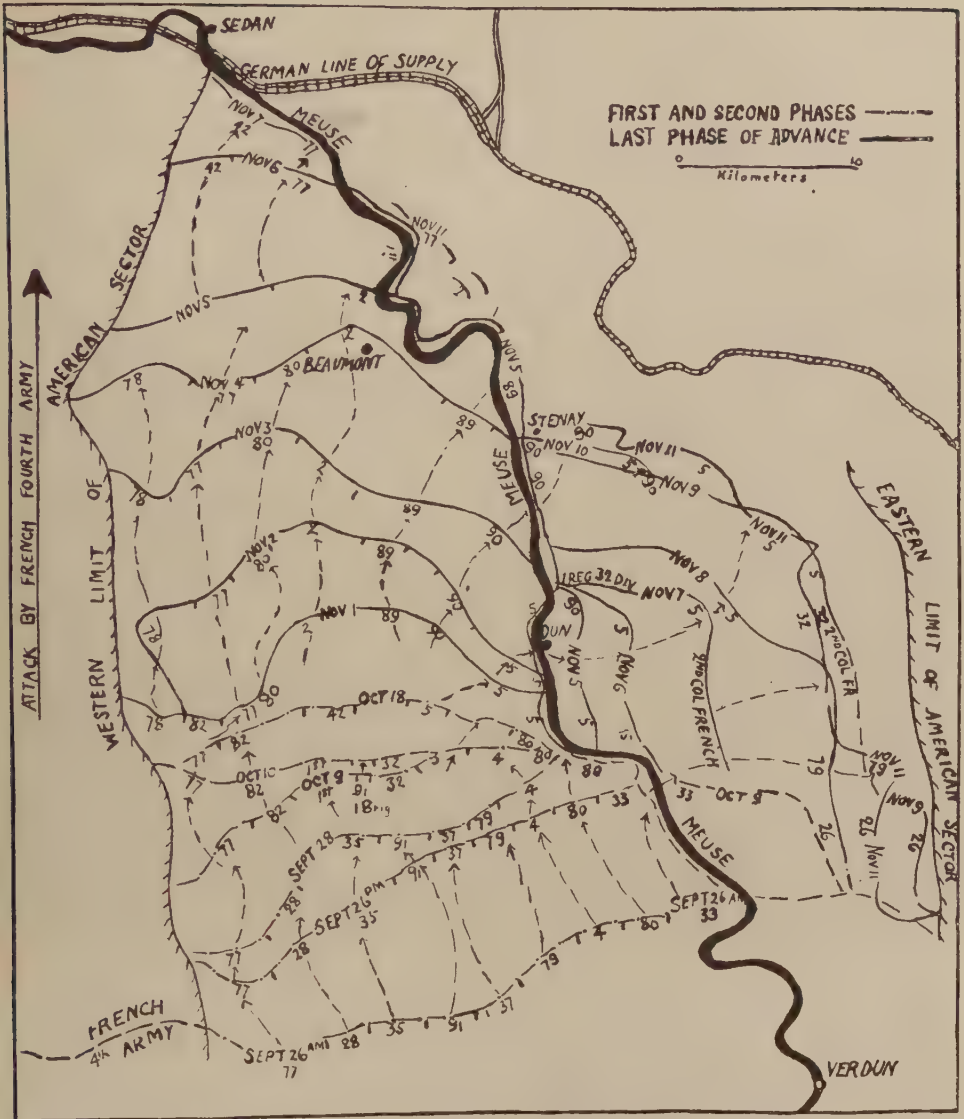
For five days these men, almost without food or water, under fire at all times from a concealed enemy who surrounded them entirely, held out. Airplanes succeeded in dropping some bread, little of which fell near them. Finally on October 7, the 307th Regiment succeeded in relieving this so-called "Lost Battalion." As a matter of fact the battalion knew where it was and the division commander knew its position perfectly well, but was unable to relieve it sooner.

The map giving the daily position of each division shows not an orderly progression but a jumble of lines difficult to disentangle. Divisions fronted in every direction except towards the rear.

SOME OF THE SPECIAL DIFFICULTIES MET AND CONQUERED.

The valley of the Aire made difficult going. From the front and from both flanks came converging fire, on ground so marshy that the artillery found difficulty in advancing. The First which had relieved the battered Thirty-fifth, with the Thirty-second which had taken over the line of the Thirty-seventh, advanced together up the right bank of the Aire October 4-

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MAP SHOWING THE ADVANCE IN THE MEUSE-ARGONNE

From Ayres, *The War With Germany*

8, suffering many casualties but securing Fleville, Exermont and Gesnes, assisted by a brigade of the Ninety-first, and continued to advance until the First after losing nearly half its strength was relieved by the Forty-second, eager to show that it was quite as good as the First. Meanwhile the Fourth and the Eightieth (which had relieved the Fifth) made some progress to the right of Romagne.

The German artillery on the east side of the Meuse was proving troublesome, and General Pershing ordered General Claudel, commanding the Seventeenth French Corps, to which was added the Twenty-ninth American Division, and a part of the Thirty-third, to attack on a narrow front, while the Thirty-third French Corps took over a part of the line previously held by the Seventeenth Corps. The

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attack on October 8th, gained something like six kilometers, and 3000 prisoners were captured, but resistance quickly stiffened, as the German High Command was determined to hold the eastern heights of the Meuse at all costs since here was the actual pivot of all the German defensive positions on the Western Front.

THE SECOND AMERICAN ARMY IS NOW ORGANIZED.

General Pershing now had under his command seven Army Corps, totalling about a million men, too many for a single staff and a single commander. He therefore constituted the Second Army (October 12) to take over that part of the line southeast of Fresnes-



THE ONE HUNDRED AND SIXTY-FIFTH INFANTRY SETTING UP MACHINE GUNS

THE GERMANS FORCED TO EVACUATE THE ARGONNE FOREST.

Though the Seventy-seventh had been advancing in the Argonne the centre of the line had gone faster. To silence the guns on the flank, parts of the Twenty-eighth now wearing the title of the "Iron Division," and the Eighty-second (which had been added to the First Corps) on October 8th, swung to the left, crossed the Aire valley, climbed the hills, took Chatel-Chéhery and Cornay and drove the Germans from the edge of the Forest. Thus threatened on their flank and under constant pressure from the Seventy-seventh, the Forest was evacuated on October 10. This flank movement was both difficult and expensive.

en-Woevre, the newly stabilized St. Mihiel front. Lieutenant General Robert L. Bullard was sent to command this army; control of the Third Corps passing to Major General John L. Hines, who had commanded the Fourth Division. At the same time Lieutenant General Hunter Liggett was promoted to command of the First Army, and Major General J. T. Dickman was transferred from the Fourth to the First Corps, and Major General C. P. Summerall left the First Division to command the Fifth Corps. General Pershing, of course, retained general control of the Army Group.

The question of replacements was now becoming serious. If the attack was to be pressed, more men must be



VIEW OF VAUX LES PALAMEIX FROM THE HILLSIDE

The tiny hamlet of Vaux les Palameix was almost destroyed by the bombardment and by German airplanes. The Seventy-ninth Division was here, October 17, 1918, in the second phase of the Meuse-Argonne battle. The houses in the picture are empty shells, most of them without roofs as the inhabitants have fled for safety.



ON GUARD IN THE VALLEY OF THE MEUSE

The Thirty-third Division fought on both sides of the Meuse during the Meuse-Argonne offensive, as well as furnishing some assistance to the Fourth Division. It was composed of National Guard units from Illinois. This picture shows a part of the 132d Regiment, 66th Brigade in front line trenches overlooking the valley of the Meuse.

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had. The two divisions loaned to the Fourth French Army, the Second and Thirty-sixth, were recalled after a brilliant attack against the key to the German front in Champagne. However, some new divisions had to be broken up for replacements and on Marshal Foch's urgent request, the Thirty-seventh and Ninety-first were

were broken, there were no prepared German positions in rear to obstruct the march on the railroad. The enemy had mapped the ground thoroughly and the range of every position was known. His artillery was served by light railways which brought up ammunition in quantity as needed, while the American artillery must be sup-



ROMAGNE, ONE OF THE STRONG POINTS

This village with its hills and encircling trenches was one of the most strongly held places in the German line, and held up the American advance for several days. It is now one of the four American cemeteries in France. To it men buried all over the battlefield have been transferred, making it a holy place.

U. S. Official

relieved from the First Army and sent to assist in the attack in Belgium.

THE ARMY NOW BEFORE THE KRIEMHILDE STELLUNG.

The First American and the Fourth French Armies were now confronting the last strong German line of defense, the Kriemhilde Stellung (called Brunhilde in front of the French). This was not so much a line of trenches, as a connected series of small forts of concrete protected by barbed wire, with machine guns everywhere. Its depth averaged about two and a half miles, and it occupied the attention of the American forces for nearly three weeks. Resistance was desperate, for if it

plied through a rough, broken country with few roads. The French were in more open country but had the disadvantage of advancing over the ground which had been torn up by artillery fire.

FIGHTING DURING THE LAST TWO WEEKS OF OCTOBER.

On October 14, a general attack was launched. Grandpré, where the Germans fired down from the windows of the houses on the men of the Seventy-eighth, was captured, but frequent counter attacks made its retention difficult. This division had not been expected to gain much ground, but to divert troops from the centre where the main attack was being launched.

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The Forty-second took the formidable Chatillon Ridge. The Coté de Dame Marie, Romagne and Pultiere Wood were taken by the Thirty-second and Fifth, and the latter with the assistance of the artillery of the Third, took Rappes Wood, on October 21, before it was relieved by the Ninetieth. The Third fought its way forward until relieved by the Fifth, now to go into the line again. East of the Meuse the fighting was also bitter. Here the Thirty-third, the Twenty-ninth, and the Twenty-sixth, on the site of the old Verdun attack bore themselves as well as their comrades across the river, and with the Seventeenth French Corps also broke into the Kriemhilde Stellung. Finally during the last days of October the German line was penetrated in several places, and the Germans withdrew from the few positions they had been able to hold. When Romagne, Bantheviller and Landres-St. George were taken the backbone of the German resistance was broken.

At the end of October all organized German positions had been taken, the Argonne Forest was in American hands, an advance of 21 kilometers (13 miles) had been made, and 18,600 prisoners, 370 cannon, 1000 machine guns and much material had fallen into American hands. More than all, though some of the divisions had suffered heavily, the morale of the army was high. The soldiers knew that they were winning and the end of the war was in sight.

THE THIRD PHASE—THE PURSUIT OF A RETREATING FOE.

On November 1, all was in readiness for the decisive attack towards Sedan, which should cut the enemy's vital line of communications and drive the Germans across the Meuse along the entire Army front. By strenuous effort the artillery had been brought up and was now on the heights previously occupied by the enemy. The French artillery, aviation and technical services had been largely transferred to their own front, being replaced by American units which had just arrived in France. The American staffs had profited by their battle experience and

carefully prepared orders had been issued to the Corps commanders.

Again counting from right to left, the Third Corps had the Fifth and Ninetieth Divisions in line; the Fifth Corps had the Eighty-ninth and Second (lately arrived from the French front); and on the First Corps front were the Eightieth, Seventy-seventh, and Seventy-eighth. News had come



GERMAN OBSERVATION POST NEAR GRANDPRÉ

of the liberation of the Belgian coast, of the breaking of the Hindenburg Line by the British, (already passed by the Americans) and of the French occupation of Laon. All were eager to have a part in the final operation.

THE MEUSE IS REACHED AND CROSSED.

After two hours of terrific bombardment the line went forward, preceded by a barrage of maximum density. The Third Corps took all its objectives and the Fifth Corps in the center swept by Landres-St. Georges, Bayonville, and over the heights of Barri-court, almost nine kilometers in all. The First Corps met stronger resistance, but the advance of the Fifth

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made a general German retirement necessary and on the second day the First pressed hard in pursuit, many units of the Seventy-seventh in motor trucks, while the Fifth and Third Corps were forcing their way rapidly northward. The objective of the Third Corps lay east of the Meuse, that of the Fifth Corps, Beaumont, while the First was directed on Sedan. Mean-

been pressing the enemy on the east bank of the river further south. The combined attack drove the enemy clear of the heights of the Meuse.

THE ENTIRE GERMAN ARMY IS FORCED ACROSS THE MEUSE

To the north the German rear-guards resisted desperately in order to enable the fleeing army to cross the Meuse. On the night of November



ENTRANCE TO DEATH VALLEY, MEUSE-ARGONNE

The soldiers gave the name Death Valley to this desolate region near Samogneau. The picture was made October 27, 1918, and shows how the forest had been pounded by the shells of the contending guns, while machine guns commanded every point of vantage. The road was cut by wheels and torn by shells. One wonders how it was possible to make headway through the Meuse region where every advantage was with the defense.

U. S. Official

while the long range guns found the railway at Montmédy, Longuyon and Conflans. The Third Corps swung to the right, the Fifth Division attempting to cross the Meuse the night of November 3rd-4th, and some units succeeding, against heavy resistance on November 4th. The entire Division quickly followed in a brilliant advance to the edge of the bluffs and on through the forest of Spincourt. Soon it linked up with General Claudel commanding the Seventeenth French Corps, with the Seventy-ninth, Twenty-sixth and Eighty-first American Divisions and two French divisions, who had

3rd an astonishing incident occurred on the front of the Second Division. The Marine Brigade had broken through near Belval, whereupon the 9th and 23rd Infantry Regiments marched all night through the forest of Dieulet as far as La Tuilerie Farm, where a number of German officers were captured in billets. They had penetrated deep into the enemy lines, but so great was the confusion and demoralization of the retreating Germans and so unexpected this attempt that they were not cut off or attacked in force, though the advance was confined to a single road.

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The momentum gained on the first day of this final attack increased daily and the final rush towards Sedan was an overwhelming avalanche. Most of the German units succeeded in fleeing across the Meuse, but many units were cut off and completely destroyed. 250 cannon and 2000 machine guns were abandoned. On the night of November 6-7 the Forty-second

addition to his devoted Belgians, was clearing his country. The French had been advancing in the centre of the long line and now the American army had cut one of the two main lines of supply, and also of retreat.

General Pershing was not content with the possession of this portion of the Meuse. On November 5 an attack by the First Army was ordered



DUN-SUR-MEUSE ON THE EAST BANK, TAKEN BY THE FIFTH

Division and portions of the First Division reached the heights of the Meuse overlooking Sedan and the city lay at their mercy. For reasons of sentiment, however, the French were allowed the honor of entering Sedan which had been the scene of their humiliation nearly fifty years before.

THE POSITION OF THE AMERICAN ARMIES AT THE ARMISTICE.

Meanwhile things had been going badly for the Germans in the north. Haig's hammer blows had broken the Hindenburg Line and were driving the Germans before them. King Albert, with whom were French and British troops besides two American Divisions, the Thirty-seventh and Ninety-first, in

toward Longwy, while the Second Army was to press toward the Briey Iron Basin completing the destruction of German hopes in the South. Active preparations were on foot when the news of the signing of the Armistice came. The movements of the Fifth Corps were so rapid however, that there was some desultory fighting after 11 A.M. The Second Army, (Fourth and Sixth Corps) below St. Mihiel made a considerable advance during the last days of fighting. At the request of Marshal Foch, General Bullard with six divisions was ready to join General Mangin with twenty French divisions in an attack toward the Sarre Basin on November 14.

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THE GENERAL RESULTS OF THE MEUSE-ARGONNE BATTLE.

The great battle of the Meuse-Argonne was over. Between September 26 and November 11, forty-seven days, twenty-two American and six French divisions on the front from Verdun to the western edge of the Argonne had engaged and beaten forty-seven German divisions, about one-fourth of the total number of their divisions on the Western Front. The attack had drawn twenty divisions from the French Front, one from the British and two from the Eastern.

Something more than 630,000 Americans had been engaged in the whole operation and about 140,000 French, though less actively. This is by far the largest army ever engaged in a single battle under an American general. St. Mihiel, important as it was, seems small in comparison. The losses in killed, wounded and missing were 117,000 Americans and about 7000 French, not an excessive number considering the numbers engaged, the length of the engagement and the character of the country. The First Army had taken 26,000 prisoners, 847 cannon, 3000 machine guns and large quantities of war material, and had driven the German armies across the Meuse.

IMPOSSIBLE TO SINGLE OUT THE BEST DIVISION.

No man at this time can fairly apportion praise among the divisions and the commanders, here or at St. Mihiel, in the Marne salient or on the British Front. The regular divisions were expected to do well, for the Regular Army has always done well. Some of the Guard Divisions had been well-trained in times of peace and much was expected from them. They responded, but the Guard Divisions, less well trained and with a large proportion of selected men also did well. The Twenty-eighth had a larger casualty list than any other Guard Division with the Forty-second and Twenty-sixth not far behind. The Thirty-second which served with two French armies, as well as in the Meuse-Argonne, the Thirty-third which first showed its quality

on the British Front, the Thirty-fifth which attacked Vauquois with almost no battle experience, and the Twenty-ninth which fought east of the Meuse, all did their tasks in a workmanlike fashion. The Thirty-seventh fought at Avocourt without ever having been in an active sector, and then was transferred to Belgium.

The National Army divisions did not get into the line as early as the Guard and Regular divisions, but their record was brilliant. More has been written, perhaps, of the Seventy-seventh, because of its metropolitan origin, New York City, but it was by no means the only good division of drafted men. Partisans of the Eighty-ninth, Eighty-second, Seventy-eighth, Ninetieth, Seventy-ninth, Eightieth, and Ninety-first, (which spent the last days of the war in Belgium), to take them in order of their casualties, tell us that each was really the best division in France.

THE UNITED STATES HAS CAUSE FOR PRIDE IN THE RECORD.

The operation of the Meuse-Argonne was entered upon, from necessity, without proper preparation and with many deficiencies in equipment, but its success completely justified the haste. Only a few divisions had received the training supposedly necessary to prepare them to attack a position of such strength, but the green divisions beside them behaved like veterans, and together they broke through the strongest German defenses. The success of the operation was largely responsible for bringing the war to an end in 1918. Suddenly conceived, hurriedly prepared during the course of another great battle, preceded by one of the most, if not the most difficult concentration movements in the history of warfare, it was driven to a successful and victorious conclusion through the longest period of continuous battle during the war. The Staff, though new to its work, rose to the emergency and quickly became a splendid team.

The battle in every phase, conception, preparation, and execution, was typical of the genius of the American people, therefore little understood and much discussed by foreign critics.

AMERICAN ARMY AND NAVY DECORATIONS



DISTINGUISHED SERVICE
MEDAL OF THE ARMY



MEDAL OF HONOR, ARMY



DISTINGUISHED SERVICE
CROSS OF THE ARMY



VICTORY MEDAL



VICTORY BUTTON, SILVER



VICTORY BUTTON, BRONZE



DISTINGUISHED SERVICE
MEDAL OF THE NAVY



MEDAL OF HONOR, NAVY



NAVY CROSS



British Military Police in Cologne

CHAPTER LXXVI

The Armistice Is Signed

DEFEATED ON THE FIELD AND DESPONDENT AT HOME,
THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT ASKS FOR PEACE

THREE springs came to Europe bringing hopes of peace: four winters saw their blasting. Yet with the eternal cycle of nature the hope thrust up its head anew early in 1918. Allied Commanders facing conditions shook their heads—not until next year could decision come for them. If they waited till next year German victory would never come at all, reasoned the German High Command, for the Americans were coming in spite of the submarines. Tentative effort, baited propaganda, defeatist wile, all had failed in 1917. Germany could make the Allies inclined to peace only by fighting.

THE GERMAN OFFENSIVE OF 1918 A BID FOR PEACE.

It was first of all necessary, remarks Ludendorff, "to shake the position of Lloyd George and Clemenceau by a military victory." Accordingly the great German offensive of the year was put forward as a final argument for peace. Yet in June, even when the Allies had been defeated in Picardy and Flanders and on the Chemin des Dames, Clemenceau spoke the words, "We shall achieve victory if the public authorities are equal to their task." And Ludendorff, with the pulse of the German will-to-war beginning to beat irregularly beneath his touch, remarks, "In France they were equal to it, but

how was it with us?.....It was certainly discouraging that our two great attacks had not forced a decision.....Disillusionment had come—a decided deterioration in the army's morale.....the homeland itself was completely under the influence of hostile propaganda and of speeches made by enemy statesmen.....there was ever-increasing evidence of the creeping growth of Bolshevism."

LUDENDORFF BEGINS TO DESPAIR OF MILITARY SUCCESS.

Then Foch's hammer blows began: at the Marne where Ludendorff speaks longingly of the "desire for rest" if the enemy would let them have it; in the north where Haig attacks and forces Ludendorff to the admission, "Our war machine was no longer efficient. I had no hope of finding a strategic expedient whereby to turn the situation to our advantage.....The war must be ended."

So August 13-14 a conference was called at Spa. To Chancellor von Hertling and Secretary of State von Hintze, to the Kaiser himself the following day (and thence indirectly to the Emperor Charles and General von Arz), Hindenburg and Ludendorff give their ultimatum. No longer by an offensive was it possible to make the enemy sue for peace. Defense alone could hardly achieve this object, and so

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the termination of the war would have to be brought about by diplomacy. Then the generals, leaving to the government the duties of opening the eyes of the nation to the gravity of the situation, and of making peace by diplomacy, return to their own task of opposing a stable front to Foch's attacks.

the two agreed to bend their powers upon a peace campaign and parted "with a strong handshake like men who have buried their dearest hopes and who are resolved to hold together in their hardest trials as they have held together in success."

In this crisis the chancellor was dismissed and a new government was



REFUGEES FREED BY BRITISH DURING THEIR ADVANCE

LUDENDORFF AND VON HINDENBURG
RESOLVE TO FORCE PEACE.

Ludendorff had advocated peace negotiations while the German army still possessed the Hindenburg line intact as a basis for bartering, but the civil government delayed and procrastinated and a month later (September 8-9) nothing had been done, although the Austrian-Hungarian Army had signified it could only hold out until the winter. September 27 after the beginning of the great battle of Armageddon, Ludendorff forced himself to take action. "The enemy had to be asked for peace and armistice. . . . The enemy would have to speak. Would he talk of conciliation or of violence?" So he sought out von Hindenburg and

formed, which it was hoped would be acceptable to the Allies. Von Hertling was succeeded by Prince Max of Baden as Imperial Chancellor. Meanwhile Ludendorff with the Kaiser's consent sent an officer, Major von dem Busche, to the *Reichstag* to explain the gravity of the military situation. The latter presented the startling truth, "We cannot win the war. Realizing this fact and in view of the course of events in general, the Field Marshal and General Ludendorff have resolved to propose to His Majesty to bring the fighting to a close. . . . We must accordingly lose no time. Every twenty-four hours that pass may make our positions worse and give the enemy a clearer view of our present weakness."



THE RETURN OF THE SOLDIER KING AND HIS BELOVED QUEEN TO BRUGES

On October 25, 1918, with the dignified simplicity that has endeared them to other peoples beside their own, Albert and Elizabeth, King and Queen of the Belgians, with their son, Prince Leopold, made their state entry into Bruges. The Belgian colors floated free. Over the gabled roofs, from ancient belfry and church tower rang peals of welcome and rejoicing. The happy people expressed their joy in cheers and shouts.



BERLIN'S GREETING TO THE GERMAN TROOPS UPON THEIR RETURN

Not as the vanquished but as conquerors the German soldiers were received in Berlin. With laudatory speeches, with flowers and flags and garlands of greenery, with cigarettes and cheers, the crowds welcomed them. For a whole afternoon the regiments passed between thronging thousands, while bands played "Deutschland uber Alles" and other familiar tunes.

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PRESIDENT WILSON IS APPROACHED WITH A REQUEST FOR PEACE.

The *Reichstag* was greatly shocked—panic-stricken. Apparently conditions on the front had not been understood. To his intense annoyance, Ludendorff's estimate of the situation was published to the world. October 4 the first note to President Wilson was dispatched, and thereafter the days were filled with the exchange of documents between Berlin and Washington, while ever in Flanders in Picardy, in Champagne and in the Argonne, Entente guns push nearer to the Fatherland.

In the first note Prince Max asked President Wilson to take in hand the restoration of peace and invited the Allies to send plenipotentiaries to open negotiations, while at the same time he signified German acceptance of the President's Fourteen Points, as set forth in his message to Congress Jan. 8, and the Five Points of his speech of September 27. He further asked for an armistice.

To this note President Wilson responded October 8, with two questions and a statement. Does the Chancellor mean that the German Government accepts the terms laid down? For whom does the Chancellor speak? The President will not propose cessation of arms while the armies of the Central Powers are upon Allied soil.

PRINCE MAX HASTENS TO REASSURE THE PRESIDENT.

Prince Max hastened to reply, for in the field matters were growing worse. The answer (October 12) to the first question was in the affirmative, if the Powers associated with the United States also accepted the position of the President. The Government for which the Chancellor spoke had been appointed by agreement with the *Reichstag*, and he spoke for that body and for the German people. The German Government would be pleased to evacuate occupied territory and a mixed commission was suggested to make arrangements.

Some Allied representatives were alarmed. Did these notes mean that the Germans were to be allowed to withdraw unmolested within their borders

where they might or might not continue the war; and criticisms of the negotiations were heard. President Wilson, however, apparently had been accepted as the spokesman for the Entente, and knew precisely what was in the minds of the leaders. Having put the Chancellor on record, on October 18 he spoke bluntly for the United States, and presumably for the Allies. The conditions of an armistice will be left to the judgment of the military leaders. He will recommend no arrangement which does not safeguard the military supremacy of the Allies and the United States. He will consent to no armistice "so long as the armed forces of Germany continue the illegal and inhuman practices which they still persist in." While the German Government is asking for armistice, submarines are sinking passenger ships and the boats in which the passengers and crews are striving to escape, and the retreating German army is looting villages and carrying away their inhabitants. Moreover the President again reminded the German Government that destruction of arbitrary power was one of the conditions of peace.

THE PRESIDENT'S NOTE PRACTICALLY A DEMAND FOR SURRENDER.

Practical surrender then—not peace by negotiation is meant—this much is clear to the German Command. Hurred council is again summoned, this time in Berlin, of the Government, Kaiser, army chiefs. The military situation is somewhat better at the time: Pershing is being held, will be held for two weeks; in the north, German troops are retreating in good order behind the line of the Scheldt, and pursuit is becoming increasingly difficult. Ludendorff is questioned again with great minuteness. Of victory there is not the slightest chance, but of a break-through: "If you ask me on my conscience, I can only answer that I do not expect it." He retires to Spa again, muttering, "All that was required was to look facts in the face, to cease deceiving themselves and the people and to endow themselves with resolution in action, such as was to be found at General Headquarters."



THE FRENCH RETURN IN TRIUMPH TO METZ

On November 19, 1918, with Marshal Pétain at their head, French troops marched victorious into Metz. The streets blossomed with French flags, many made of material from women's garments. Girls appeared in the native costume. A military review was followed by Te Deum and prayer in the Cathedral of St. Stephen.



THE FRENCH COLORS DIP TO THE ENTENTE LEADERS

Among the most romantic experiences of the war's end was the return of the French to Alsace and Lorraine. In November, 1918, Paris celebrated at home the restoration of her lost provinces. In December Paris went to them. The picture records a moment in Metz. President Poincaré, Premier Clemenceau, and Marshal Pétain are passing, with Marshal Foch and General Sir Douglas Haig on their right.

Pictures © Underwood and Underwood

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On October 20 in a third note — much to the Army Chiefs' disgust — the German Government denies the charges of inhuman practices but agrees to abandon submarine warfare against passenger ships. Again it persists that it represents the German people, and declares that the consent of the *Reichstag* will be necessary for any future war. When the President spoke

this act — contrary to the policy of the Government — which now in the persons of Prince Max and Erzberger, Solf and Scheidemann has superseded the High Command — Ludendorff becomes the scapegoat, and October 26 his resignation was accepted. And so, exit Ludendorff. The Government at Berlin knew that it must have peace. It was not sure of the Army, the Navy



THE FIRST OF THE WOUNDED OF THE 27TH DIVISION

The first of the wounded of the "Empire" Division, New York's Own, as well as some of the wounded of the Thirtieth and Thirty-Seventh Divisions, arriving in New York on the Empress of Britain, which brought home a total of 70 officers and 2,372 men.

Times Photo Service

again on the 22nd it is to emphasize the proposal to make Germany incapable of further military effort. He is willing to transmit the correspondence to the Allied governments, but he practically demands the deposition of the Kaiser and the Great General Staff. And with that Ludendorff and Hindenburg go to Berlin to insist that the Government do not surrender but fight on. To strengthen the spirit of the army before they departed they left a telegram "For the information of all troops. Wilson's answer is a demand for unconditional surrender. It is thus unacceptable for us soldiers." For

was reported to be mutinous, and the people would no longer support the war.

THE FOURTH GERMAN NOTE AGREES TO ALL TERMS.

On the morrow Germany's fourth note asked for Allied proposals for armistice, stated that peace negotiations were now being conducted by a government of the people "in whose hands rests, both actually and constitutionally, the authority to make decisions. The military power are also subject to it." On the 31st Turkey surrendered unconditionally; November 4 Austria, following the defeat of late October,



WILLIAM HOHENZOLLERN, FORMER CROWN PRINCE

November 9 the German Emperor signed his abdication at German Grand Headquarters at Spa in the presence of the Crown Prince and Field-Marshal von Hindenburg. The Crown Prince's signature to the document, renouncing his imperial birthright, followed. The Kaiser left for Holland, and the Crown Prince finally reached the Dutch border and was interned at Maastricht. November 21 he left for Mosterland, an isolated fishing hamlet on the little island of Wieringen.

International Film Service



FREDERICK EBERT PROCLAIMED PRESIDENT OF GERMANY

Frederick Ebert was elected Provisional State President of Germany on February 11, 1919. In accepting the presidency he declared his purpose to dispense justice without favor or prejudice. He was accorded a great ovation by the packed galleries and by the crowd outside when he left the German National Assembly which sat in the Weimar Court Theatre.

N.Y. Times

followed suit. Diplomatic correspondence was closed November 5, when President Wilson signified the willingness of the Allies to make peace with Germany on the basis of the Fourteen Points, reserving only their own interpretation of the freedom of the seas and reparation for damage wrought in invaded territories, and announced that Marshal Foch was authorized to communicate terms. The next day the German Government sent peace plenipotentiaries to receive the terms of armistice from Marshal Foch.

Leaving Berlin on the 6th the delegates reached Headquarters at Spa. There by wireless they were informed of the route to follow and the point in the French lines where they would be received. It was late the next night before they could make the picket line, for the roads were ploughed up by shell fire. There was delay again, examination of papers, trenches to be filled up, and then the envoys go south through the wilderness of the Hindenburg line. Now and again an escort pointed silently to heaps of ruin, or murmured significantly "*Voilà St. Quentin!*" Ever a deepening sense of the hatred and hostility in which they were held invaded the consciousness of the surprised Teutons and gave warning of what was in store. For the night they were given quarters in the Château of the Marquis de l'Aigle at Francport. Friday morning (November 8) a special train ran them into a siding in the Forêt de Compiègne where near the village of Rethondes, Marshal Foch awaited them in his own car. With him was Sir Rosslyn Wemyss, First Sea Lord of the British Admiralty.

THE HISTORIC MEETING ON THE TRAIN IN THE FOREST.

After salutation, "*Qu'est-ce que vous désirez, messieurs?*" inquired the Generalissimo, and the German delegation was forced to sue for armistice. In a loud voice Marshal Foch read the Allied terms, stopping at due intervals for translation to be made. This proceeding lasted for nearly two hours; then the French Commander announced that there were to be no negotiations, and the Germans withdrew to con-

sider the dictated conditions. They had seventy-two hours to accept or refuse, and sought permission to communicate with Berlin. A courier bearing the text of the armistice set off for Headquarters at Spa. He succeeded in crossing the French lines but was delayed for hours by German barrage in his own zone. In the meantime in the lonely wood, with its two railway trains, cut off from all intercourse with the outside world, the ambassadors awaited the courier's return. Saturday passed—seemingly interminable. Sunday came and Paris newspapers announced the abdication of the Kaiser, who was soon to take refuge in Holland to escape his former subjects. There was no laughter, no triumph on the faces of the French guards around the little clearing in the autumn woods, but the Germans could read in their hearts that their mills were grinding irresistibly.

Meanwhile in Berlin on receipt of the terms wirelessly from Spa, a conference of the new government was held. Time was slipping fast, debate could not arrest the storm, Foch was adamant, there was no hope. The delegates were instructed by courier to accept, and after a protest submitted to the inevitable.

At five o'clock on the morning of Monday, November 11, the Armistice was signed by the German representatives. Foch telegraphed to all the generals: "Hostilities will cease on the whole front as from 11th November at eleven o'clock. The Allied troops will not until a further order go beyond the line reached on that date and at that hour."

THE HARSH TERMS OF THE ARMISTICE SUMMARIZED.

It is not possible in this space to give the full text of the Armistice. A summary follows: Renewal of hostilities was made impossible by the immediate evacuation of Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine and Luxembourg by November 25; by handing over to Allied occupation the German territory on the left bank of the Rhine together with surrender to Allied control of the crossings of the Rhine at Mayence,

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Coblenz and Cologne, including bridge-heads of 30 kilometres radius. A neutral zone on the west bank of the Rhine running from the frontier of Holland to the Swiss frontier was to be established by December 11. Germany must pay the cost of the Armies of Occupation. Vast quantities of heavy guns and other war material were to be surrendered, including 2000 aeroplanes. Something like one-half of

In the East she agreed to abandon the treaties of Bucharest and of Brest-Litovsk. All German troops in Russia, Rumania or Turkey were to be withdrawn, and the agents of German propaganda in Russia recalled. The Baltic was opened to Allied ships of war; provisions made that through Danzig or up the Vistula supplies could be sent to the starving peoples of Poland and Russia. Black Sea ports



AN HISTORIC SPOT AT RETHONDES

Where the Armistice was signed in the Forêt de Compiègne. At the left can be seen Marshal Foch's train in which the agreement was signed, and in which the Allied Commission lived during negotiations. There were five German delegates; Generals Winterfeldt and von Gündell, Admiral von Salow, Mathias Erzberger and Count von Oberndorff. N. Y. Times

the German Navy including all submarines was to pass at once under the control of the Allies to be disarmed and interned in neutral or Allied ports; all other German warships of every kind were to be completely disarmed, concentrated in German naval bases and held under control of the Allies and the United States. The railways of Belgium, Luxembourg and Alsace-Lorraine were to be given up, and Germany must surrender 5000 locomotives. Thus Germany could fight no more. Great masses of the troops of her enemies would occupy broad belts of her territory, the passage of the Rhine was closed to her, her own forces had to retire to points 20 miles east of the Rhine.

were to be evacuated by Germany, who had to give up the Russian war fleet. While the blockade was to be maintained as regards Germany, all German restrictions upon the trade of neutrals were removed. Germany had to give up all prisoners she had taken, all ships she had seized, but this was not reciprocal. German prisoners and German ships of war were to remain in Allied custody. Though called an Armistice it was really a surrender.

And so peace came to the battle fronts. Till within five minutes of the hour hostilities continued. Dramatically at 11 o'clock came a sharp order "Cease firing." Silence fell—silence that could be heard. Then a curious crackling clamor rose and fell, rose again

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and died away; it was the cry of men in a multitude of tongues and dialects, "The war is ended!" That night the gleam of a hundred thousand camp-fires threaded the darkness from the Vosges to the sea, and in place of hideous bombardment "the hum of either army stilly sounds." In a few scattered localities news could not be gotten to the front in time and a few shots were fired after the hour.

THE TROOP MOVEMENTS OCCURRING UNDER THE ARMISTICE.

When Germany capitulated she had on the Western Front seventeen armies made up of approximately 3,000,000 bayonets. Retreat began at once under von Hindenburg and was conducted by the transportation expert, General Groener, who had succeeded Ludendorff as quartermaster-general. On reaching its several corps headquarters, with very few exceptions the army was demobilized. Neither in France nor in Great Britain was demobilization very quickly got under way, but in many cases indeterminate furloughs were granted to large bodies of men. The United States at once began the work of demobilization in America and prepared to send the troops home from Europe. By the middle of December some 70,000 men had been returned from France, and some 750,000 men in the United States were discharged from the army.

Preceding the general advance of the Allied Armies of Occupation over a front approximating 350 miles begun on November 17, a force of 25,000 German troops at Maeseck, Belgium, on November 13, desiring to reach Germany via the Dutch province of Limburg, surrendered their arms to the Dutch and proceeded that way without them. Antwerp was occupied on November 15 by the Belgians, under a special arrangement with German Headquarters at Spa.

THE POSITION OF THE VARIOUS ARMIES ON THE RHINE.

When the general advance was begun on the seventeenth the Belgian Army had on its right two British armies, the Second under General Plumer, and the Fourth under General Rawlinson. On

their right was the French Fourth Army commanded by General Gouraud. These armies were to re-occupy Belgium and reach the Prussian frontier by November 25, whence the Belgian and British armies were to advance upon the Rhine to their allotted places. By December 18 the Belgians had occupied and organized their corner of Rhenish Prussia. They had marched 160 miles, having been obliged to skirt the Limburg province of Holland to the south. Their administrative terrain, excluding the 6.2 miles neutral belt on the eastern bank of the Rhine, amounted to about 700 square miles. The British Armies marched about 150 miles and occupied and administered a terrain of 2,500 square miles.

The Third American Army under Major General Joseph T. Dickman, in large part drawn from the First and Second Armies, began its forward movement from a fifty-mile front extending from Mouzon on the Meuse River, southeast to beyond Fresnes. At Longwy and Briey they had the advantage of the railways leading down the Moselle. By the 23rd they were well through the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. Late on December 11 the four advance divisions of the American Army of Occupation completed their march to the Rhine. Of these the First, Second and Thirty-second Divisions crossed the river and established the bridgehead on December 13, flanked on the right by three French divisions.

THE FRENCH ARMIES OCCUPY ALSACE-LORRAINE.

Between the signing of the Armistice on November 11 and November 17 the Tenth French Army under Mangin moved to the Metz front to replace the Second American and French armies, which had been prepared to invade Lorraine when hostilities ceased, while in its turn the Second French Army was moved still further south, taking the place of the First French Army in Alsace.

The Tenth Army, with the American Third on its left, moved northeast across Lorraine and the southern part of the Prussian province, and took



UNITED STATES TROOPS ON COBLENZ BRIDGE

The Coblenz bridgehead included an arc of a circle whose radius was some nineteen miles, having as central point the eastern end of the Pfaffendorf bridge. On this advance line the advance posts were established. Army Headquarters were at Coblenz. On December 17 the occupation of enemy territory, as it had been foreseen and laid down by the armistice convention was, in so far as the Americans were concerned, completely terminated.

U. S. Official



THE FIRST AMERICAN DIVISION CROSSES THE MOSELLE

The division commenced its march to the Coblenz bridgehead from Abaucourt on November 17, passing through Lorraine and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. It crossed the Rhine on December 13, and occupied its area east of the Rhine in the Coblenz Bridgehead, December 14. The division earned 300 Distinguished Service Crosses.

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possession of the bridgehead at Mayence and the left bank of the Rhine as far south as Lauterbourg, where it had the Second French Army on its right, for the latter had proceeded through Alsace to the Rhine, covering the river zone from Lauterbourg to Huningen on the Swiss frontier. On November 23 Strassbourg set its clocks to French time and Marshal Foch made a trium-

and the Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Fleet Sir David Beatty, on board the Queen Elizabeth in the Firth of Forth. Meurer was accompanied by three delegates from the Sailors' and Soldiers' Council, and three from the People's Council.

The surrender of the major portion of the surface fleet took place in the North Sea, fifty miles east of the Firth of



PARIS CELEBRATES VICTORY

phal entry into the city, accompanied by Marshal Pétain and Generals Castelnau and Gouraud. On December 10th the 13th and 43rd Infantry Divisions of General Mangin's Army took possession of Mayence, and in the following week crossed the river and occupied the bridgehead zone.

THE VESSELS OF THE GERMAN NAVY ARE SURRENDERED.

According to the Armistice a decisive percentage of the German High Seas Fleet, including all submarines, was to be handed over to the Allies and the United States. Details of this surrender were arranged, November 15-16, between Rear Admiral Hugo Meurer, who came in the German light cruiser *Königsberg*

Forth, on November 21. With guns turned inward it steamed between lines of Allied and American ships. The surrender of the submarines was made to Rear-Admiral Reginald W. Tyrwhitt at Harwich on the previous day. In all 129 U-boats were given up.

November 10 a British destroyer anchored off Constantinople in the Golden Horn. A French destroyer followed and by December 8 Constantinople was under military occupation. November 26 an Allied naval squadron passed through the Black Sea and took possession of the Russian ships at Sebastopol which had been surrendered to the Germans by the Bolsheviks.

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BEFORE AND AFTER THE ARMISTICE

WAS THE ARMISTICE PREMATURE? A QUESTION SOMETIMES ASKED.

There are those who hold the opinion that the armistice was premature. Yet the German plenipotentiaries admitted

defeat when they sought armistice: Von Brockdorff-Rantzau in the Peace Conference at Versailles said, "We are under no illusions as to the extent of our defeat and the degree of our want of

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power. We know that the power of the German Army is broken," If further testimony be needed it can be found in the state of the German lines of retreat to the Rhine. The soldiers were disappointed that the enemy was not pursued into Germany, and no doubt the civilian was irritated by reading that the returning German army was hailed as victor in Berlin.

fighting on that line at least one more great battle with the loss of many lives. On only one front — between the Meuse and Verdun — were communications in good order. If advance had been made here the fruitful provinces of Alsace and Lorraine would have been made like unto the Sodom and Gomorrah wastes of the Hindenburg line and parts of Belgium.



CROSSING THE HOHENZOLLERN BRIDGE AT COLOGNE

The First Canadian Division crossed the Rhine at Cologne. General Sir Herbert Plumer may be seen taking the salute. Hardly once during two hours did the gallant old general give his arm any rest as he stood there rigid, with his hand to his cap, for he knew the sacrifice of his men through bloody years and saluted each one, colonel or corporal, trooper or horse-gunner, bugler or signaler.

©Canada, 1919

Yet the fact is established that the Allied armies at the beginning of November had nearly reached the farthest limit at which for the time being they could be regularly supplied. Not only did a roadless, railwayless, bridgeless zone lie before their troops, but their commissariat was grievously taxed by the civilian population thrown on their hands as they advanced into liberated regions, or met the hordes of returning prisoners of war. A pause was essential. That pause, if the war had not been ended, would have given the enemy time to make good his retreat to the Meuse, and would have entailed

THE GERMAN SOLDIERS FIND THEIR COUNTRY MUCH CHANGED.

The Germany that the Army found on its return was much changed. In the beginning of November, while the stage was being set for Armistice negotiations, revolution came. Brought about by the Independent Socialists it broke out first in the Navy, at Kiel, Wilhelms-haven, in Heligoland, at Borkum and Cuxhaven. The government was not strong enough to nip it in the bud: soldiers sent to quell the mutiny went over to the mutineers. Demand for peace and popular government rose to open summons to the Kaiser to abdicate.



GERMAN HIGH SEAS FLEET PROCEEDING TO THE FIRTH OF FORTH

November 18, the Germans, in accordance with orders from Admiral Beatty, put out to sea with magazines empty, their guns secured amid-ships and only navigating and engineering crews aboard. Early on the morning of 21st they reached the rendezvous, and proceeded to anchor in the Firth, some miles below the Forth Bridge.

Times Photograph



LARGE GERMAN U-BOAT OF MERCANTILE CRUISER TYPE INTERNED AT HARWICH

One of the submarines surrendered under the armistice terms and interned at Harwich. Each German submarine commander at the transfer was required to sign a declaration to the effect that his vessel was in running order, that its periscope was intact, that its torpedoes were unloaded.

British Official Photograph



GERMAN TORPEDO-BOAT DESTROYER CAPSIZING AND DISAPPEARING AT SCAPA FLOW

On Saturday, June 21, just before the German Government decided to sign the treaty unconditionally, the crews of the German naval vessels interned at Scapa Flow sank all the big battleships and battle-cruisers, except the Baden, with numerous smaller craft, while others went ashore.

Times Photograph

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A panic swept over financial centres, causing a widespread hoarding of currency. November 9 Prince Max issued a decree announcing that the Kaiser and Crown Prince had abdicated. General upheaval followed. Like a house of cards the fabric of autocracy went down in Germany. A Socialist republic was proclaimed in Bavaria with Herr Kurt Eisner at its head. One by

to succeed Prince Max as Chancellor. Then a struggle between the Moderate Socialists and Reds, or Spartacides as they called themselves, developed. Fighting broke out in the streets and lasted for two days. The rioting which threatened a triumph for the Reds was quickly dissipated. The party of Dr. Karl Liebknecht was relegated to political obscurity and the Councils of



EHRENBREITSTEIN FROM THE AIR

View from the air of the famous fortress of Ehrenbreitstein which overlooks the Rhine at Coblenz. Under the Armistice terms it was occupied by American troops, and the flag can be seen floating from its main flagstaff. The fortress occupies the summit of a precipitous rock 385 feet above the river and has been called the Gibraltar of the Rhine on account of its natural strength and massive fortifications. N. Y. Times

one the smaller states declared themselves republics before the end of November. Throughout the Rhine industrial regions Soldiers and Sailors' Councils, prepared in long systematic underground work, were established. In Berlin on Sunday, November 10, a few hours sufficed for a complete triumph. A new People's Government was set up, and Friedrich Ebert chosen

Workers and Soldiers' Delegates held well under control.

At Weimar, on February 6, 1919, a National Assembly met, and five days later adopted a republican constitution for the former German Empire. Friedrich Ebert was chosen Provisional State President. Philip Scheidemann became Chancellor with a coalition Cabinet. So ends a chapter.



The Palace of Versailles, from the Gardens

CHAPTER LXXVII

Making the Peace Treaties

REPRESENTATIVES OF THE VICTORIOUS NATIONS MEET TO FORMULATE PEACE TERMS

WITH the close of the war came the tremendous problem of settling the many grave and perplexing questions arising from the contest. No peace conference in the history of the world had been confronted with so many and such difficult questions as those to be solved at Paris. Literally the whole world had been affected, to a greater or less degree, by the great cataclysm. Europe had passed through a political and economic revolution, while Asia, Africa and America had been vitally changed by the momentous events of the past four years.

THE PEACE CONFERENCE AN UNWIELDY BODY.

To accomplish these purposes the nature of the conference was not well adapted. It represented thirty-two states, whose views as to the character of the settlement were far from being identical. It is true that there was a widespread feeling among the peoples of all countries that the settlement should be based upon broad principles of justice; that the right of peoples to determine their own destiny should be fully respected; and above all that there should be created some means of preventing a recurrence of such a calamity.

When it came to translating these ideals into concrete proposals, difficulties arose. In the first place, with the

close of the war much of the fine idealism which had characterized the peoples of the Allied countries disappeared, and on all sides national jealousies and selfish ambitions reasserted themselves. Moreover, the crimes which Germany had committed and the terrible suffering in the Allied countries engendered a bitter hatred of the Teutons, and a demand for their punishment.

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF SOME OF THE QUESTIONS.

In the final settlement the representatives of the various Allied states naturally regarded the relative importance of the problems confronting the Conference differently. To France the vital question was security against German aggression in the future. Twice within the memory of men still living, France had suffered invasion from across the Rhine. It is easy to understand why Frenchmen should have regarded the necessity of providing France with ample guarantees of security as one of the primary functions of the Conference. Italy saw in the Conference an opportunity to realize her hopes of acquiring the Italian-speaking provinces of the former Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and of strengthening her domination of the Adriatic Sea.

Great Britain would welcome the destruction of the German naval

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power which had caused not a little uneasiness in the years before the war. The newly created states of central Europe, Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, Jugoslavia, in an excess of national patriotism, pressed upon the Conference their rival territorial claims. Japan viewed the European settle-

of war. It was difficult to reconcile some of the provisions of these treaties with principles of abstract justice or with the conditions laid down in President Wilson's "Fourteen Points."

Confronted by these difficulties, the Peace Conference resolved itself, not into a conference between victors and

vanquished, but into a conference among the victors in which the representatives of the Allied states strove to reconcile their clashing interests and rival claims. Only when these differences had been amicably adjusted, were the Germans summoned to the Peace Conference to receive from the Allied representatives the final peace treaty which they were called upon to accept.

THE FIRST SESSION OF THE CONFERENCE AND ITS NOTABLE FIGURES.

The Peace Conference held its first formal session on January 18, 1919, exactly forty-eight years to the day since the first German Emperor had been proclaimed at Versailles. The meeting was held in the Clock Room of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at Paris. It was a notable gathering of the leading statesmen and diplomats of the nations which had joined together in the struggle against the Teutonic powers.

The outstanding figures at the Conference were Clemenceau, the veteran French statesman

and indomitable leader during the most trying days of the war; President Wilson, whose remarkable addresses during the last two years of the war had won for him a position of unquestioned leadership among liberal-minded men in all countries; and Mr. Lloyd George, the shrewd and able British Premier. Among the less prominent statesmen were, Premier Orlando of Italy, Premier Saionji of Japan, Premier Venizelos of Greece, Premier Borden of Canada, Premier Bratiano of Rumania, Generals Botha and



EXTERIOR OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE, PARIS

Where met together the delegates to the great World Peace Conference. The most powerful of the victorious peoples—The United States, France, Great Britain, and Italy—adjudged the number of seats allotted to each nation.

N. Y. Times

ment with disinterested impartiality, but in the Far East she had very definite interests, especially in regard to China. The United States alone among the Great Powers at Paris, entered the Conference having fore-sworn all territorial acquisitions and economic privileges.

THE SECRET TREATIES RENDER SETTLEMENT MORE DIFFICULT.

Moreover, the Conference was called upon to liquidate the obligations contained in the "secret treaties" negotiated among the Allies under the stress

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Smuts from South Africa. In addition to the delegates there were a large number of secretaries and experts whose duties were to furnish the delegates with the vast amount of detailed information upon the questions to come before the Conference.

The preliminary work of the organization of the Peace Conference had been arranged by conferences of the

Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, and Uruguay, one each.

After a welcoming speech by President Poincaré of France the Conference chose Premier Clemenceau as Chairman. It was provided that the five chief powers should take part in all meetings and be represented on all commissions, while the other powers



THE COUNCIL OF FOUR

The "Big Four" of the Allies' Peace Delegation, Lloyd George of Great Britain, Clemenceau of the French Republic, Premier Orlando of Italy, and President Wilson. Clemenceau was elected to the permanent presidency of the Peace Conference. Orlando succeeded Boselli as Prime Minister in 1917 and gained prestige by the moral courage he showed at the moment of the Caporetto disaster.

Inter-Allied Supreme War Council and by meetings of the representatives of the chief Allied powers.

A LIST OF THE STATES WHOSE DELEGATES WERE ADMITTED.

As finally organized the Conference consisted of seventy delegates from thirty-two states. The states were represented as follows: France, Great Britain, The United States, Italy and Japan, five each; Brazil, Belgium and Serbia, three each; Canada, Australia, South Africa, India, China, Greece, Hedjaz, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Siam, and Czecho-Slovakia, two each; New Zealand, Bolivia, Cuba, Ecuador,

should take part only in the sessions at which questions concerning them were discussed. The real work of the Conference was performed by commissions to which were referred the multitude of territorial, economic and financial questions. The recommendations of the various commissions were considered by the Council of Ten, consisting of the two ranking delegates from the five chief powers before they were referred to the plenary sessions of the Conference. Later the Council of Ten was reduced to five and finally to three—Wilson, Lloyd George and Clemenceau.

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THE PLAN FOR A LEAGUE OF NATIONS IS APPROVED.

The second plenary session of the Conference was held on January 25, 1919, at which the most important action was the adoption of the plan for a League of Nations. President Wilson made the chief address in support of the proposal, and representatives of the other leading powers made hearty

the Monroe Doctrine. Senator Lodge presented a resolution to the Senate signed by thirty-nine Republican Senators protesting against the Covenant as drafted. After a visit to the United States President Wilson proposed a number of important changes in the Covenant to meet some of the objections that had been raised. These changes specifically recognized the



A ROOM IN THE FOREIGN OFFICE, QUAI D'ORSAY

The Peace Conference sat in the Salle de la Paix of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, across the Seine from the Place de la Concorde. The hall was originally known as the Salle d'Horloge and is one of the most splendid reception rooms in Europe. Leading from this room was another large chamber.

International Film Service

speeches of approval. The resolution adopted by the Conference provided that the League of Nations Covenant should be treated as an integral part of the Treaty of Peace. A tentative draft of the League Covenant was presented to the Conference on February 14, 1919, and President Wilson sent a dispatch to the Congressional Committees on Foreign Relations that he proposed to return to Washington to discuss the plan with them. Without awaiting the arrival of the President several Senators delivered speeches in which they vigorously attacked the whole plan of a League of Nations. The chief criticism was that it violated

Monroe Doctrine, removed domestic questions such as immigration from the jurisdiction of the League, allowed nations to withdraw from the League upon two years' notice, and made clear that the rule of unanimity should control the decisions of the League.

PRESIDENT WILSON IS FORCED TO MAKE COMPROMISES.

Having realized the project which was nearest to his heart, President Wilson found it more difficult to satisfy the different territorial and economic ambitions of the various nations without sacrificing the principles which he had proclaimed. Concessions had to be made in order to preserve a united

front among the Allies. In deference to Great Britain the question of "freedom of the seas" was quietly dropped; France was given important economic concessions in the Saar valley; Japan insisted upon the transfer of Germany's rights in Shantung to herself; and Italy was assigned distinctly German territory in the Tyrol. To Italy's more extravagant claims in the Adriatic, the President vigorously objected, and as a protest the Italian representatives temporarily withdrew from the Conference. The question of reparation to be paid by Germany caused serious difficulty. The representatives of the Allied European nations joined in a statement to President Wilson in which they set forth their claims that Germany and her allies should be made to pay the full cost of the war. To this the President objected that the terms of the Armistice made reparation collectible only for actual damage done in violation of the rules of war and of nations. The question was adjusted by referring the matter to an Inter-Allied Reparations Commission which should fix the amount and conditions of payment.

With all of these difficulties confronting the Conference, it is perhaps remarkable, not that mistakes were made, but that any general agreement at all could be reached. Finally, however, after four months of arduous labor the draft of the proposed treaty was completed, and was approved at a plenary session of the Conference on May 6, 1919.

The following is a brief analysis of the lengthy document containing about 80,000 words:

THE PROVISIONS OF THE COVENANT OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

Article I of the Peace Treaty comprises the Covenant of the League of Nations. As constituted by the Covenant the original members of the League consist of all of the Allied and Associated powers and such neutral states, named in the annex to the Covenant, which shall accept the Covenant without reservation. The states not named in the annex—in addition to the Teutonic allies—are Russia,

Mexico, and Costa Rica. Provision is made for the future admission of these states and of any other fully self-governing state, dominion or colony by a two-thirds vote of the Assembly of the League. Any member of the League may withdraw from the League upon two years' notice provided all of its obligations under the Covenant and all of its international obligations have been fulfilled. The organs of the League are an Assembly, consisting of from one to three representatives of each of the members of the League (each state having but one vote); a Council composed of one representative each from the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy and Japan, together with four representatives of other members of the League chosen by the Assembly (pending the selection of the four representatives by the Assembly, the Covenant provided that representatives of Belgium, Brazil, Greece and Spain should be members of the Council); a permanent Secretariat with headquarters at the seat of the League at Geneva, Switzerland; a Court of International Justice, plans for which are to be formulated by the Council; and of a number of commissions entrusted with the enforcement of specific parts of the treaty. All decisions of the Council and the Assembly are to be by unanimous vote except where otherwise provided.

THE METHODS OF PRESERVING PEACE PROVIDED BY THE LEAGUE.

As the main purpose of the League of Nations is the preservation of international peace, the most important articles of the Covenant contain provisions for the prevention and settlement of international disputes. In the first place the members of the League are required "to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all members of the League." (This is the famous Article X.) Any war or threat of war is declared to be of concern to the whole League and any member of the League has the friendly right to call to the attention of the Council or Assembly any matter "which threatens to dis-

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turb the peace or good understanding between nations." The members of the League bind themselves to submit to arbitration or to inquiry by the Council all disputes which are likely to lead to war. Arbitral awards are to be made by a court agreed upon by the disputants or by the permanent Court of International Justice. Disputes not submitted to arbitration are to be referred either to the Council or to the Assembly. Awards of the Council are to be made by unanimous vote, not including the parties to the dispute, and awards of the Assembly by unanimous vote of the states represented on the Council and a majority of the representatives of the other states, not including the parties to the dispute. Disputants agree not to resort to war until three months after the award of the Assembly or Council or the decision of the arbitral court, and members agree not to go to war with a state which complies with the award.

Differing from former international arbitration agreements the Covenant provides sanctions for giving effect to its decisions. It is provided that in case any member of the League shall resort to war in disregard of the Covenant, it shall be considered as having committed an act of war against all other members of the League, and such members agree to prohibit all financial, commercial and personal intercourse with the Covenant-breaking state. If such economic pressure does not prove effective the Council shall then recommend to the members of the League what common naval and military forces shall be used against the offending state. In case of a dispute between a member of the League and a state not a member of the League, or between two states not members of the League, such latter states are to be requested to accept the obligations of membership for the purposes of the dispute. In case of refusal to do so and resort is made to war against a member of the League by an outside state, then the League will regard such state as having declared war against the League.

THE LEAGUE PROVIDES FOR THE PUBLICATION OF ALL TREATIES.

The Covenant also provides for the registration and publication of all international agreements entered into by members of the League, and all existing agreements which are inconsistent with the terms of the Covenant are declared abrogated. It is stated, however, that this does not "affect the validity of international engagements such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe Doctrine for securing the maintenance of peace."

Recognizing the serious menace to international peace which the competition in national armaments involved, the Covenant provides that the Council shall formulate plans for a reduction in armaments. These plans are to be subject to revision every ten years, and a nation having accepted the plan is prohibited from increasing its armaments without the consent of the Council. All members are to give full information of the extent of their armaments and their military and naval programmes. The manufacture of munitions by private enterprise is to be discouraged. A permanent military commission is to be constituted to advise the Council.

MANDATES OVER THE TERRITORY OF UNDEVELOPED PEOPLES.

An interesting and novel provision of the Covenant is that dealing with the former German colonies and the Turkish possessions in Asia Minor. These colonies and dominions are to be placed under the control of certain of the advanced nations which are to act as mandatories for the League. The character of the mandate differs according to the stage of development of the people involved. Thus in the former Turkish territories the mandatory power should exercise simply a supervisory power, while in the German colonies in Central Africa the mandatory would assume a greater degree of responsibility in the administration of the territory. In any case the mandatory is required to render an annual report to the Council in regard to the territory committed to its care.



FRENCH LANCERS SALUTE THE PRESIDENT

President Wilson seated with President Poincaré and followed by Mrs. Wilson and Madame Poincaré are shown passing along the Avenue Alexandre III in front of the Grand Palais des Beaux Arts. On the other side of the street is the Petit Palais des Beaux Arts and in these two buildings the Salons are held. N. Y. Times



TAKEN AT BUCKINGHAM PALACE

This photograph was taken at Buckingham Palace in December 1918, just before President and Mrs. Wilson left London to return to France. It is the only occasion when a president of the United States and a sovereign of Great Britain were photographed together. Central News Service

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The Covenant placed the International Labor Office, which is provided by the treaty, under the supervision of the League, and the members of the League are to intrust the League with the execution of agreements with regard to the traffic in women and children, the traffic in opium and other dangerous drugs, and the trade in arms and munitions. The members of the League are to assure equitable treatment for the commerce of all members of the League and are to adopt measures for the international control and prevention of disease. All existing International Bureaus and Commissions are placed under the direction of the League.

Amendments to the Covenant are to take effect when approved by the members of the League with seats in the Council and by a majority of the members represented in the Assembly.

To assure France of protection until such time as the League of Nations should be fully organized, there were drafted special treaties between the United States and France and Great Britain and France, by the terms of which the United States and Great Britain agreed to come to the immediate aid of France in case of an unprovoked attack on the part of Germany. These treaties are to be submitted to the Council of the League which is to determine whether the provisions of the treaties conflict with the obligations of the League Covenant.

THE TREATY PROPER—GERMAN TERRITORIAL LOSSES.

Turning now to the territorial and economic provisions of the German treaty, Germany was required to cede to France Alsace-Lorraine, about 5,600 square miles of territory; to Belgium, two small districts between Luxembourg and Holland, totaling 282 square miles; to Poland, most of Posen and West Prussia; and, in addition, Upper Silesia and the southern part of East Prussia should determine by plebiscites whether to join Poland or to remain German, in all more than 28,000 square miles; a district of 729 square miles including the city of Danzig is internationalized and placed under the

jurisdiction of the League of Nations, leaving, however, to Poland the control and administration of the Vistula River, the railway system of the city, as well as its postal, telegraph, telephone systems and its foreign relations; a strip of 910 square miles in East Prussia along the Niemen River is awarded to Lithuania; part of Schleswig, totaling 2,787 square miles, was to have its status determined by popular vote of the inhabitants;* the basin of the Saar, 738 square miles, between the western border of the Rhenish Palatinate and the southeast corner of Luxemburg, is placed under the control of the League of Nations; the coal mines are ceded to France in compensation for the destruction of coal mines in northern France, and at the end of fifteen years a plebiscite is to be taken to determine whether the population desires to remain under the control of the League of Nations, to be incorporated in France or to revert to Germany.

Germany was further deprived of all of her over-seas possessions. The former German colonies have been assigned to various of the Allied Powers in accordance with the mandatory principle provided in the League Covenant.† In addition Germany was forced to renounce all former privileges and concessions in China, Siam, Egypt, Liberia and Morocco. The German concessions in the Shantung peninsula were assigned to Japan. Germany is required to respect the independence of the territories which were part of the former Russian Empire and to agree to the abrogation of the Brest-Litovsk treaty. Moreover Germany bound herself in advance to accept whatever territorial and other arrangements the Allied Powers should make with Russia, Turkey, Austria, Hungary and Bulgaria.

NOTE—For the purposes of the plebiscite in Schleswig the district was divided into two zones. In the northern zone a majority voted to join Denmark, while in the southern zone the majority voted to remain with Germany.

NOTE—Kamerun and Togoland have been divided between Great Britain and France as mandatories; in German East Africa, Great Britain has been designated; for German South-West Africa, the Union of South Africa; the Samoan Islands, New Zealand; the other German islands south of the equator, to Australia; Pleasant Island to the British Empire; the German Pacific Islands north of the equator, to Japan.



DANZIG, FORMER CAPITAL OF WEST PRUSSIA

The city is very mediaeval in aspect, successive old styles of its buildings having been well preserved, including in the residences countless gable façades and a peculiar feature known as Beischlage—elevated open-air landings. Many of the streets are narrow and crooked but they abound in fine specimens of antique architecture and have a most picturesque appearance. Before the war vast stores of grain were exported from Danzig.

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ECONOMIC LIMITATIONS IMPOSED UPON THE GERMAN STATE.

Important limitations are placed upon the internal economic organization of Germany. She is required to grant freedom of transit through her territories by rail or water to all of the Allied Powers, to maintain the free zones in German ports which existed before the war, and to grant to Czecho-Slovakia special rights in the ports of Hamburg and Stettin. The chief German rivers, the Elbe, Oder, Rhine, Weser and Moselle are placed under the control of international commissions. The treaty contains detailed provisions to prevent Germany from discriminating against the trade of the Allied countries. The German import tariff shall not exceed that provided in the period immediately before the war, and ships of the Allied Powers are to enjoy for five years the same rights in German ports as German vessels.

Under the head of reparations Germany was required to accept responsibility for herself and her allies for all the loss and damage suffered by the Allied governments and their nationals as a result of the war. In the first place she is required to repay all sums borrowed by Belgium from the Allies since the outbreak of the war. Further she is required to make compensation for all damages to civilians specified under the following heads:

(a) Damages by personal injury to civilians caused by acts of war, directly or indirectly.

(b) Damages caused to civilians, including exposure to the sea, resulting from acts of cruelty ordered by Germany.

(c) Damages caused by maltreatment of prisoners.

(d) Damages to the Allied peoples represented by pensions and separation allowances.

(e) Damages to property except naval and military materials.

(f) Damages to civilians by being forced to labor.

(g) Damages in the form of levies and fines imposed by Germany during the war.

The total amount which Germany is

to be required to pay under the above heads, is to be determined by an inter-Allied Commission not later than May 1, 1921. As an immediate step toward reparation Germany is required to pay five billion dollars in gold, goods or other forms of payment; to issue ten billion dollars in bonds to be delivered to the Allies as security for further payment; and to stipulate to deliver ten billion dollars additional in bonds at such time and under such terms as shall be fixed by the Reparations Commission. In addition to the money payment Germany is obligated to replace, ton for ton, all merchant shipping destroyed during the war. This is to be accomplished by the surrender of all German merchant ships over 1600 tons gross tonnage, and by the building of ships up to 200,000 tons annually for five years. She is further required to devote her economic resources to the restoration of the devastated areas; to return animals, machinery, etc., taken from the Allied countries; to deliver large quantities of coal to France, Belgium and Italy; to hand over manuscripts, books and prints equivalent to those destroyed in the Library of Louvain.

MILITARY RESTRICTIONS PREVENT THE GROWTH OF A STRONG GERMANY.

The treaty placed severe restraints upon Germany's military power. She has been required to reduce her army to 100,000 men, including 4,000 officers; to abolish the Great General Staff; to close all establishments for the making of war munitions, except those specially named, and to surrender all armament and munitions in excess of a specified amount. Conscription is abolished in Germany and the army is to be recruited by voluntary enlistments for terms of twelve years.*

In the area 50 kilometers east of the Rhine no armed forces are to be maintained and all fortifications within this area are to be razed. The German navy is limited to six small battleships, six

NOTE—The long term of enlistment was required in order to prevent Germany from adopting the plan used by Prussia during the Napoleonic wars. Napoleon had limited the Prussian army to 40,000 men, and the Prussian leaders adopted the scheme of training 40,000 men for a brief period and placing them in the reserve and training an additional 40,000.

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light cruisers, twelve destroyers, twelve torpedo boats and no submarines, with a personnel not exceeding 15,000 men, including officers. All German war vessels, except those above mentioned, have been turned over to the Allies to be disposed of by them. All military and naval aircraft have likewise been surrendered and Germany is forbidden

As a guarantee for the faithful execution of the treaty, the German territory on the west bank of the Rhine and the bridgeheads on the east bank at Mainz, Coblenz and Cologne are to be occupied by Allied troops for fifteen years. If Germany lives up fully to the conditions of the treaty the bridgehead at Cologne is to be evacuated at



SCENE IN BERLIN BEFORE THE CHANCELLERY

Wilhelmstrasse choked with a vast throng gathered before the Chancellery to denounce the Allied peace terms; the poster to the right reads "To the Devil with this Hellish Peace." When the treaty was handed to the German delegates they were informed that no oral discussion would be allowed and an interchange of notes followed. N. Y. Times

to include any airplanes or dirigibles in her armed forces. The fortifications on the island of Heligoland have been dismantled and the Kiel Canal is to remain free and open to the merchant and war vessels of all nations. Finally, Germany was to agree to the trial of the former German emperor "for a supreme offence against international morality and the sanctity of treaties" before a special tribunal composed of one judge from each of the five great powers, and must also surrender to the Allies such other persons as they may designate, who are accused of having committed acts in violation of the rules of war, to be tried by Allied military tribunals.

the end of five years and that at Coblenz at the end of ten years.

PROVISIONS OF THE TREATY AFFECTING LABOR IN THE WORLD.

Of the more general provisions of the German treaty one of the most interesting and significant is that which provides for an International Labor Organization. The members of the League of Nations agree to establish a permanent labor organization, to consist of an annual International Labor Conference and an International Labor Office. The Conference shall consist of four representatives from each state, two appointed by the government, and one each representing the

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employers and the workmen, and shall act as a deliberative and legislative body. Its acts are to take the form of recommendations to the law-making bodies of the various states. Each state is left free to enact the recommendations into law; to approve of them in principle; to modify them to suit local needs; to refer them in case of a federal state to the local legislatures for consideration; or to reject them altogether. The International Labor Office is to be located at the seat of the League of Nations, and is to consist of twenty-four members, twelve representing governments, and six representing employers and six employees. This body is to collect and distribute information on labor questions throughout the world; to prepare programmes for the conferences; to publish periodicals in French and English, and possibly other languages; to investigate complaints that a state has not carried out a labor agreement to which it is a party.

The first meeting of the Conference was fixed for October, 1919, at Washington, when the following questions were considered: the eight hour day, or the forty-eight hour week; the prevention of unemployment; the extension and application of the international conventions adopted at Bern in 1906 prohibiting night work for women and the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches; the employment of women and children in unhealthy employments; of children under a minimum age, and of women before and after childbirth.

SOME OF THE PRINCIPLES REGARDING CONDITIONS OF LABOR.

Upon the complaint of any state that another state has failed to carry out a labor convention, the Labor Office may designate a commission of inquiry to report upon the matter. If this does not lead to a satisfactory settlement, the question may be referred to the permanent Court of International Justice, which may recommend such measures of an economic character as it may deem appropriate to be taken against the defaulting state.

Nine principles of labor conditions

are set forth which the members of the League recognize, on the ground that "the well-being, physical, moral, and intellectual, of industrial wage earners is of supreme international importance." Making allowance for differences of climate, customs and industrial traditions, these principles are as follows: (1) labor should not be regarded merely as an article of commerce or a commodity; (2) the right of association of employers and employees; (3) the payment of wages sufficient to maintain a reasonable standard of life; (4) the adoption of the eight hour day or the forty-eight hour week as a standard to be aimed at; (5) a weekly rest period of twenty-four hours, which should include Sunday wherever possible; (6) the abolition of child labor and provision for the continuation of the mental and physical development of young persons who are employed; (7) equal pay for men and women doing work of equal value; (8) equitable treatment of all workers, including aliens; (9) a system of labor inspection in which women should participate.

THE GERMANS PROTEST BITTERLY AGAINST THE SEVERITY OF THE TREATY.

Such are the main terms of the treaty which the Allied representatives worked out after four months of arduous labor. Having completed their task the Allies summoned the German delegates to Versailles and handed the treaty to them on May 7, 1919. Reports from Germany indicated that the German delegates were determined to use President Wilson's fourteen principles as a basis for protest against certain parts of the treaty. Demonstrations organized by the National People's Party were held throughout Germany to protest against the signing of the treaty. On May 29 the German delegates submitted a series of counter proposals in which they indicated where they considered that the terms of the proposed treaty violated the Armistice conditions. To these the Allies rejoined with a long and vigorous defense of the treaty in principle but indicated that they had modified its details in accordance with the

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German suggestions. In conclusion it was stated that unless the German representatives declared their willingness to sign the treaty within five days, the Allies would consider the Armistice terminated and would take such steps as they might deem necessary to enforce their terms. After a futile attempt to have the time limit extended, the German government, at the last moment, indicated its willingness to sign. The final scene in the great world drama was enacted in the historic Hall of Mirrors in the palace at Versailles. In the same room which, forty-nine years before, had witnessed the birth of the German Empire, the two German delegates affixed their signatures to the document which marked the humiliation and doom of that empire. The final ceremony took place at 3 P.M. Saturday, June 28. The German National Assembly ratified the treaty on July 9.

THE TREATY IS SOON ADOPTED BY A LARGE MAJORITY OF THE NATIONS.

Among the chief Allied powers the treaty was generally approved. It passed the British parliament and received the royal assent on July 31, France ratified on October 13, Italy on October 7, and Japan on October 30. Ratification by three of the chief Allied powers being completed, the Supreme Council was free to fix a date for putting the treaty in force and starting the machinery of the various commissions for which it provides. The Council, however, delayed final action in the hope that the United States Senate would ratify the treaty and the United States would participate in executing its provisions. When the Senate finally adjourned without consenting to the ratification of the treaty, the Supreme Council agreed upon December 1, 1919, as the date for putting the treaty into operation. The final ceremony, however, did not take place until January 10, 1920, when the representatives of the fourteen Allied powers which had ratified the treaty deposited their certificates of ratification at Paris and signed the protocol and procès-verbal which put the treaty into effect.

In the meantime a long and bitter

controversy took place in the United States Senate over the ratification of the treaty. Opposition developed to many of the treaty provisions, notably to the Shantung settlement and the disposition of the former German colonies. The chief attack, however, was centered upon the Covenant of the League of Nations. Many Senators claimed to find in its provisions a departure from the traditional American policy of isolation from European political affairs. As the debate developed it became evident that it would not be possible to obtain the necessary two-thirds vote to ratify the treaty as it stood. Efforts to reach a compromise proved futile. The Senate finally adopted, by a majority vote, a series of fifteen "reservations."

THE RESERVATIONS ADOPTED BY THE UNITED STATES SENATE.

These reservations, in brief, are as follows: (1) that in case of notice of withdrawal from the League, the United States shall be the sole judge whether its international obligations have been fulfilled; (2) that the United States will assume no obligation to preserve the territorial integrity of any country or to interfere in any controversy, unless by act or joint resolution Congress shall so provide; (3) no mandate shall be accepted by the United States except by action of Congress; (4) that the United States reserves the right to determine what questions are within its domestic jurisdiction, and that such questions shall not be subject to consideration by the League; (5) that the Monroe Doctrine shall be interpreted by the United States alone; (6) that the United States refuses to recognize the cession of Germany's rights in Shantung to Japan; (7) that Congress will provide for the appointment of the representatives of the United States in the League Council and Assembly and define their powers; (8) that the Reparations Commission shall interfere with trade between the United States and Germany only with the approval of Congress; (9) that the United States shall not be obligated to contribute to the expenses of the League, unless Congress shall appro-

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priate funds for such expenses; (10) that the United States reserves the right to increase its armament in case of war without the consent of the Council; (11) that the United States reserves

or Council of the League, in which any member of the League and its self-governing colonies or dominions have cast in the aggregate more than one vote, nor to be bound by any decision



THE PROCLAMATION OF PEACE IN LONDON

The Treaty of Peace was signed June 28, 1919, and was officially proclaimed in London on the following Wednesday. The picture shows an officer of the College of Arms reading the proclamation at St. James' Palace. Officers of Arms appear at an early period of the history of armory as the messengers in peace and war of princes and magnates.

Central News Service

the right to permit a covenant-breaking state to continue trade relations with the United States; (12) that nothing in the treaty shall contravene any of the rights of the citizens of the United States; (13) that the United States will participate in the labor organization provided by the treaty only upon act of Congress; (14) that the United States assumes 'no obligation to be bound by any decision of the Assembly

in a dispute between the United States and any member of the League, in which such member, or its self-governing colonies, have voted. The fifteenth reservation expressed sympathy for the desire of the Irish people to have a government of their own choosing, and that as soon as this is realized, Ireland shall be admitted to the League of Nations. The general effect of the reservations is to weaken the treaty.

A TWO-THIRDS MAJORITY CAN NOT BE OBTAINED.

It was not possible to obtain the necessary two-thirds vote to adopt the treaty with these reservations attached. Having failed to ratify the treaty the Republican majority in Congress tried to bring the war officially to an end by means of a joint resolution of the two Houses. Senator Knox drafted a resolution which provided that the joint resolutions of Congress which declared a state of war to exist between the United States and Germany, and the United States and Austria-Hungary, are repealed, and that the state of war is at an end. At the same time all of the rights and privileges of the United States contained in the treaty are to be preserved. This resolution passed both Houses but was vetoed by the President.

This closed the first chapter in the long controversy over the ratification of the treaty by the United States, and further action awaited the results of the Presidential Election of 1920. The question is left over to the new administration in which the Republican Party controls not only the Executive but both Houses of Congress.

Separate treaties were signed with the other Teutonic powers, Austria, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Turkey.

THE PROVISIONS CONCERNING AUSTRIA-HUNGARY LIKEWISE SEVERE.

By the treaty signed at St. Germain on September 10, 1919, Austria is required to recognize the complete independence of Hungary, Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene state. From the former Austro-Hungarian dominions there is ceded to Italy a large part of Tyrol, Trieste, the Istrian peninsula, part of Dalmatia and the islands in the Adriatic Sea; to Czecho-Slovakia, Bohemia, Moravia and Slovakia; to the Serb-Croat-Slovene state, Carniola, Croatia-Slavonia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Dalmatia; Galicia to Rumania and Poland; and Transylvania to Rumania. In addition Austria renounces all rights which she had acquired in Morocco, Egypt, Siam and China. In the territories surrendered by Austria the

treaty makes provision for the protection of minorities. In order to prevent the union of Austria with Germany, it is provided that the independence of Austria is inalienable except with the consent of the League of Nations. The Austrian army is reduced to 30,000 men and compulsory military service is abolished, while the Austrian navy is to consist of but three patrol boats on the Danube. All of the existing Austrian warships must be surrendered to the Allies. The amount of reparation which Austria shall pay is left to the Reparations Commission. As a result of this treaty Austria is reduced to a land-locked German state, with an area of five or six thousand square miles, mostly rough, mountainous territory.

The treaty with Bulgaria was signed at Neuilly, near Paris, on November 27, 1919. By its terms Bulgaria is required to surrender the greater part of Macedonia to Serbia; the Dobrudja to Rumania; and Thrace, to the Allies, who later assigned this region to Greece. Bulgaria is forced to pay an indemnity of \$445,000,000, and to reduce her army to 20,000 men.

The negotiation of the Hungarian treaty was delayed as a result of a radical socialist revolution at Budapest. When this régime was finally displaced by a Provisional Government with Admiral Horthy as regent, the treaty negotiations were resumed, and the treaty was finally signed on June 4, 1920. By its terms Hungary is required to recognize the annexation of Transylvania to Rumania; of Slovakia to Czecho-Slovakia; of Croatia to the Serb-Croat-Slovene state; and of the Banat of Temesvar to Rumania and Serbia. The Hungarian army is not to exceed 30,000 men.

THE TURKISH QUESTION AS TROUBLESOME AS IN THE PAST.

The settlement of the Turkish problem proved, as it had so often done before, to be most difficult. All of the old conflicting interests of Great Britain, France, Italy and Greece in the Orient asserted themselves. Of particular difficulty was the question of the disposition of the city of Constantinople. It at first seemed probable that

the city would be internationalized and placed under the control of the League of Nations. The British and French authorities, however, appeared to fear that if the Sultan were driven from his capital, it might have a disturbing effect upon the Moslem subjects of these two powers in India and North Africa. It was finally determined to allow the Sultan to remain in Constantinople, under the supervision of an interallied commission. The Dardanelles and the Bosphorus are to remain open both in time of peace and war to the merchant and war vessels of all nations. All of the fortifications along the straits are to be destroyed. Turkey is allowed to maintain an army, for police purpose only, not to exceed 35,000 men, and the national finances of the country are placed in the hands of an Anglo-French-Italian commission. In Asia Minor Turkey is allowed to retain only the region of Anatolia. The remainder of the Turkish territory is divided as follows: Arabia is made an autonomous state, to be known as the Kingdom of the Hedjaz, under a British mandate; Armenia is to be an independent republic*; Great Britain is made mandatory for Mesopotamia and Palestine; France for Syria; Italy for Adalia; and Greece for the territory around Smyrna.

THE NEW STATES DISSATISFIED WITH THEIR BOUNDARIES.

Such are the territorial rearrangements and economic decisions made by the Allied diplomats at Paris. In giving effect to these many complex decisions serious difficulties presented themselves. Among the newly created states of central Europe there appeared dissatisfaction with the territorial boundaries assigned to them. Poland and Ukrainia contested for the control of Eastern Galicia, and the Allies assigned it to Poland under a twenty-five year mandate. Rumania occupied a large part of Hungary, and only withdrew after vigorous demands were made by the representatives of the Allies. Czecho-Slovakia and Poland came to the verge of war over their rival claims to

Teschen, which were adjusted by providing for a plebiscite in the disputed territory. Italy and Greece compromised their differences by the assignment of Southern Albania to Greece and the transfer of the former Turkish islands in the Aegean, which Italy had held since 1911, to Greece, while on the other hand Greece agreed to recognize the Italian protectorate over the greater part of Albania.

The problem which gave the most serious concern to the diplomats at Paris, was the disposition of the former Austrian territory along the Adriatic sea. The difficulty dates back to the secret treaty concluded between the Entente Powers and Italy in 1915. To win Italy to the Entente cause she was assured of the Austrian territory in Tyrol, Trieste, Goritzia, Istria, and part of the Dalmatian coast. The seaport of Fiume was not included, but was to be assigned to Croatia. Upon the conclusion of the war Italian nationalists demanded that the city of Fiume should be given to Italy on the ground that a majority of the inhabitants of the city are Italian and wish to be joined to Italy. The claims of Italy were stubbornly resisted by the new Jugo-Slav state. It was pointed out that while the immediate town of Fiume has an Italian majority, the suburbs are largely Slavic and the hinterland entirely so. Moreover it was stated that Fiume is the only feasible port for the whole of Croatia and the neighboring territory. Matters reached a critical stage when President Wilson in April 1919 announced publicly his opposition to the Italian claims. This led to a withdrawal of the Italian representatives from the Peace Conference and popular demonstrations in Italy against the President. There was some concern that the action of Italy foreshadowed a split among the Allies. The Italians were, however, finally persuaded to return to the Conference, and negotiations looking to a compromise were started. A new complication was added by the action of the Italian poet-adventurer Gabriele d'Annunzio, who forcibly took possession of Fiume,

*The mandate for Armenia was offered to the United States but Congress refused to accept it.

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apparently without the authorization of the Italian government, and declared his intention of holding the city, despite any decision that might be reached at Paris.

In November 1920 the governments of Italy and the new Serbo-Croat-Slovene state, commonly known as Jugo-Slavia, signed a treaty agreeing to a compromise. Fiume is to be

guage and to have such language taught in the schools, wherever they are in considerable numbers; and to enjoy equal civil and political privileges, such as admission to public offices, or the exercise of professions and industries.

Poland signed a minorities' treaty of this kind at the time that the peace was signed with Germany. The repre-



FIUME AND ITS HARBOR

With the American troops in Fiume. This is a view of the city and its harbor as seen from one of the adjacent hills. American troops who fought beside the Italians on the Piave crossed to the opposite shore of the Adriatic Sea to a city which, but a little while previously, had been a base for Boche submarines. Fiume is the second best harbor on the eastern shore of the Adriatic. U. S. Official

independent, but certain other territory is to be assigned to Italy. At once d'Annunzio announced that he would refuse to accept the treaty.

TREATIES FOR THE PROTECTION OF RACIAL MINORITIES.

In addition to the treaties with the Teutonic powers the Allied representatives drafted treaties which they required the newly created states of central Europe to sign, guaranteeing complete individual freedom, regardless of race, religion, or language, to all minority groups within their dominions. These minorities are to enjoy complete religious liberty; to use their own lan-

sentatives of both Rumania and Jugo-Slavia at first declined to sign, on the ground that such treaties violated their sovereignty. Under pressure, however, both states finally accepted.

Such are the results of the efforts of the statesmen and diplomats at Paris to liquidate the problems of the Great War, and to inaugurate a new world era. There remained a number of problems which the Conference had entirely ignored, or had left unsettled. Several of the "submerged nations," such as Egypt, India, and Ireland, appealed in vain to the Conference to have their claims for independence considered.

NO SETTLEMENT OF THE RUSSIAN QUESTION REACHED.

The Peace Conference had badly bungled the Russian problem. Alternately adopting a policy of vigorous opposition to the Bolshevik régime, and a policy of "watchful waiting," they succeeded only in bringing untold suffering upon millions of people in Russia. In January 1919 it was proposed to hold a conference of all of the Russian factions on Prinkipo Island, in the Sea of Marmora, but powerful influences at Paris which were opposed to having any dealings with the Bolshevik authorities, defeated the plan. The Allies then directed their efforts to giving support to the various anti-Bolshevik forces, and maintaining a rigid blockade of Bolshevik Russia. In the end all of these military enterprises failed, and in January 1920 the Allies abandoned the blockade of Russia and took steps to open up trade relations with her. The Allies, however, still declined to give official recognition to the Bolshevik régime.

SOME OF THE CRITICISMS OF THE TREATY STATED.

The time has not yet arrived when a final estimate can be made of the work done at Paris. Criticism of the Peace Conference has appeared from all sides. In many influential quarters in the Allied countries, especially in France, it was contended that the Conference had been too tender to Germany. It is the view of these critics that the Conference should have gone much further than it did to make Germany impotent militarily and economically, and in particular that France should have been assured of security by making the Rhine the French frontier.

On the other hand bitter disappointment was expressed in liberal and radical circles that the Conference had failed to carry out the principles laid down by President Wilson and the president was criticised for not standing more firmly for these principles. It was contended that many of the territorial settlements made by the Conference violated the principle of nationality and of self determination; that the financial and economic bur-

dens placed upon the Central Powers made their economic restoration impossible; that the failure to solve the Russian problem prevented the re-establishment of European peace; and, finally, that the proposed League of Nations was not a real world league, but merely a perpetuation of the military alliance among the Great Powers.

Whatever may be the shortcomings of the Treaty of Versailles, there can be little doubt that it foreshadows the beginning of a new era in history of the world. Four years of unprecedented strife and suffering had called into being many new and strange ideas and had swept away many time-honored traditions and institutions. The world of 1919 was no longer the world of 1914.

THE STARTLING GROWTH OF THE PRINCIPLE OF NATIONALISM.

What are some of the most striking changes which the war and the peace treaty brought about? In the first place the war witnessed a great victory for the principle of nationalism. Many national groups in Europe who, for a century, had struggled to obtain national rights, now saw their hopes realized. Fortunately the diplomats at Paris did not repeat, except in a few instances, the mistakes of their predecessors at Vienna. The new territorial settlements were based, on the whole, upon a frank recognition of the principle of nationality. Three empires, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey, whose very existence was a denial of the principle of nationality, were destroyed, and upon their ruins were erected the new national states, Czecho-Slovakia, Hungary, Austria, Poland, Jugo-Slavia, Hedjaz, and Armenia, in addition to the quasi-independent states of Mesopotamia, Syria and Palestine. Territorial additions were made, in accordance with the principle of nationality, to France, Denmark, Italy, Serbia, Rumania and Greece. Moreover it seemed probable that the former Russian Empire would disintegrate into its component national units.

MONARCHY NOW THE EXCEPTION AND NOT THE RULE.

A second principle which made noteworthy gains as a result of the war was

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political democracy. The last great strongholds of autocracy in Europe, Germany, Russia, Austria, and Turkey had been swept away, and in their place had appeared governments based upon the democratic ideal. Moreover in the states which had been democratically organized the desire for a greater

unrestrained individualism. It was argued that if co-operation was essential for the successful prosecution of war it was no less essential for a well organized state of peace. In Russia a thorough-going Marxian communist experiment was undertaken, while in most of the other European states and



BATUM ON THE BLACK SEA

The conditions of the armistice granted to Turkey, October 30, were not observed. When the Russians by order of the Bolshevik Government withdrew from Armenia in the winter of 1917-18 the Turks captured Batum and other cities. With Allied successes in Macedonia and in Palestine the British were back in Baku, November 17, and took over the Batum railway. Henry Ruschin

measure of democracy asserted itself, as is evidenced by the extension of the suffrage franchise to women in Great Britain and the United States.

In social and economic thought and action the war brought some striking changes. Under the stress of war, economic individualism, in large measure, gave way to state control and operation of industry. To an unprecedented extent individuals found themselves restrained in their everyday lives by governmental decrees and regulations. In practically all the belligerent countries means of communication and transportation were taken over by the governments, while the use of essential commodities was strictly regulated. Not unnaturally these war activities of the various governments led many persons to question the economic soundness and social value of the old

in America, proposals of a more or less socialistic character were advocated or actually adopted.

It is difficult to say whether these newer social and economic tendencies will continue with the return of peace, or whether there will be a reaction toward the older individualism, but there is undoubtedly a wide-spread feeling throughout the world that the war marked the end of the unrestrained economic individualism of the last century.

These are some of the changes and tendencies which the great world cataclysm produced and which justify the belief that the peace settlements made at Paris mark the end of an old and the beginning of a new era in the history of mankind.

NELSON P. MEAD.

APPENDIX A

CANADIAN CORPS AND DIVISION COMMANDERS

Headquarters Canadian Army Corps.		<i>Appointed</i>	<i>Retired</i>
Lt.-Gen. Sir E. A. H. Alderson, K. C. B.	Sept. 13, 1915		May 28, 1916
" Sir Hon. J. H. G. Byng, K. C. B., K. C.			
" M. G., M. V. O.	May 28, 1916		June 8, 1917
" Sir A. W. Currie, G. C. M. G., K. C. B.	June 9, 1917		Demob.
Headquarters 1st Division.			
Lt.-Gen. E. A. H. Alderson, C. B.	Sept. 22, 1914		Sept. 13, 1915
Major-Gen. Sir A. W. Currie, K. C. M. G., C. B.	Sept. 13, 1915		June 9, 1917
" Sir A. C. Macdonell, K. C. B., C. M. G.,			
D. S. O.	June 9, 1917		Demob.
Headquarters 2nd Division.			
Maj.-Gen. Sir S. B. Steele, K. C. M. G., C. B.,			
M. V. O.	May 25, 1915		June 6, 1915
Maj.-Gen. Sir R. E. W. Turner, V. C., K. C. M. G.,			
C. B., D. S. O.	Aug. 17, 1915		Dec. 15, 1916
Maj.-Gen. Sir H. E. Burstall, K. C. B., K. C. M. G.,			
A. D. C.	Dec. 15, 1916		Demob.
Headquarters 3rd Division.			
Maj.-Gen. M. S. Mercer, C. B.	Nov. 20, 1915		June 3, 1916
" L. J. Lipsett, C. B., C. M. G.	June 16, 1916		Sept. 13, 1918
" Sir F. O. W. Loomis, K. C. B., C. M. G.,			
D. S. O.	Sept. 13, 1918		Demob.
Headquarters 4th Division.			
Brig.-Gen. Lord Brooke, C. M. G., M. V. O.	Nov. 19, 1915		May 11, 1916
Maj.-Gen. Sir D. Watson, K. C. B., C. M. G.	April 25, 1916		Demob.
Headquarters 5th Division. (Disbanded in England) Feb. 28, 1918.			
Maj.-Gen. G. B. Hughes, C. B., C. M. G., D. S. O.	Jan. 22, 1917		Feb. 28, 1918

MOVEMENTS OF CANADIAN CORPS AND DIVISIONS IN FRANCE

FRANCE, 1st Division

1915

Feb. 21-28	Attached for training to 4th and 6th Division, 3rd Corps.
March 1	Transferred to 4th Corps, 1st army.
March 9	Separate command under 1st army.
April 12	Came under orders, 5th Corps.
April 23	Came under Alderson's Force.
April 27	Transferred to Plumer's Force.
May 14-15	Came under 1st Army.
May 20th	Came under command of Alderson's Force.
June 28	Came under 3rd Corps.
July 14	Division came under 2nd Corps.
Sept. 13	Canadian Corps organized under 1st Army.
Oct. 29	1st Canadian Heavy Artillery Battery transferred from 1st to 2nd Army.

1916

Jan. 26	Canadian Cavalry Brigade left Canadian Corps, attached to 1st Indian Cavalry Division, later to 2nd Cavalry Division then to 3rd British Cavalry Division and finally to the 5th Cavalry Division. These transfers took place between February and June, 1916.
	In November, 1917, attached to 3rd British Army, and in March, 1918, transferred to 4th British Army.
Aug. 12	Movement of Canadian Corps commenced to 2nd Army area; completed, 25th.
Aug. 27	Movement commenced to reserve army area.
Oct. 3	Movement of 4th Canadian Division commenced to 4th Army area.
Oct. 10	Movement of Canadian Corps less 4th Division to 1st Army area commenced.
Oct. 17	4th Division came under 2nd Corps.
Nov. 27	4th Canadian Division, 1st, 2nd and 3rd Canadian Divisional Artillery; commenced movement to 1st Army area.

1917

Oct. 12	Movement to 2nd Army area commenced.
Nov. 13	Transfer to 1st Army area commenced.

1918

March 23	1st Canadian Motor Machine Gun Brigade sent to 5th Army.
March 23	2nd Canadian Division to general headquarters reserve.
March 27	Canadian corps headquarters and 4th Canadian Division to headquarters reserve.

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March 27	1st and 2nd Canadian Divisions transferred to 3rd Army.
April 8	1st Division transferred to Canadian Corps, 1st Army.
May 7	Canadian Corps less 2nd Division to general headquarters reserve 1st Army area.
June 24	3rd Canadian Division to 3rd Army, 2nd Canadian Division from 3rd Army to general headquarters reserve.
July 10-15	Canadian Corps less 3rd Division to 1st Army.
July 27	3rd Canadian Division to general headquarters reserve.
July 30-Aug. 7	Canadian Corps transferred to 4th Army.
Aug. 19-28	Canadian Corps transferred to 1st Army.
Nov. 15	Canadian Corps transferred to 2nd Army.
Nov. 23	3rd and 4th Canadian Divisions and 8th Army Brigades, C. F. A., transferred to 4th Corps and 4th Army.

APPENDIX B

CONDENSED HISTORIES OF THE DIVISIONS OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY

REGULAR ARMY DIVISIONS—1 TO 20

First Division (first in war experiences), organized June, 1917, from units of the Regular Army; to France, June-July, 1917; infantry trained in Gondrecourt area, artillery in Valdahon; entered line near Nancy, Oct. 21, under French command; trained in quiet Ansauville sector near Toul, Jan. 19-Apr. 3, 1918; removed through Toul to Picardy; took over Cantigny sector near Montdidier, Apr. 25; carried Cantigny, May 28; relieved, July 7; Soissons operation, July 17; relieved after heavy fighting; entered Saizerais sector, Aug. 7; relieved, Aug. 24; took part in St. Mihiel operation, Sept. 12-13; advanced down Aire Valley, Sept. 30-Oct. 11; rested near Bar-le-Duc; attacked in Mouzon area, Nov. 6; marched on Sedan, Nov. 6-7; stationed at Buzancy when Armistice was signed; assigned to Army of Occupation; established at Coblenz bridgehead, Dec. 13, 1918-Aug. 16, 1919; landed at New York, Sept. 5, 1919.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. William L. Sibert, Oct. 25, 1917; Maj. Gen. Robert L. Bullard, Dec. 13; Brig. Gen. Charles P. Summerall, July 1, 1918; Maj. Gen. Robert L. Bullard, July 7; Maj. Gen. Charles P. Summerall, July 18; Brig. Gen. Frank E. Bamford, Oct. 12; Brig. Gen. Frank Parker, Oct. 24; Maj. Gen. Edward F. McGlachlin, Nov. 22.

Insignia: A crimson figure "1" on khaki background.

Second Division, organized in France in 1917, from elements of the Regular Army and Marines (units transferred to France, June 1917 to March 1918); infantry trained in department of Haute-Marne; artillery at Valdahon; all completed training near Bourmont; between Verdun and St. Mihiel, with French troops, March 16-May 13, 1918; entered Château-Thierry sector, May 31; advanced in Bois de Belleau, Bois de la Roche, and around Vaux; relieved, July 9; engaged, south of Soissons, in attack on Château-Thierry salient, July 18-19; trained in Marbache sector, north of Toul; in St. Mihiel operations, Sept. 9-16; entered line, near Somme-Py, under French in Champagne attack, Oct. 1; moved east to join American First Army; entered Meuse-Argonne sector, Oct. 30, and advanced until the declaration of Armistice; assigned to Army of Occupation; stationed at

Coblenz bridgehead from Dec. 13 until return to United States, July-August, 1919.

Commanding Generals: Brig. Gen. Charles A. Doyen, Oct. 26, 1917; Maj. Gen. Omar Bundy, Nov. 8; Maj. Gen. James Harbord, July 1, 1918; Maj. Gen. Omar Bundy, July 6; Maj. Gen. James Harbord, July 20; Maj. Gen. John A. Le Jeune (U. S. M. C.), July 28.

Insignia: Indian head on star background upon a shield, with colors varying according to the unit.

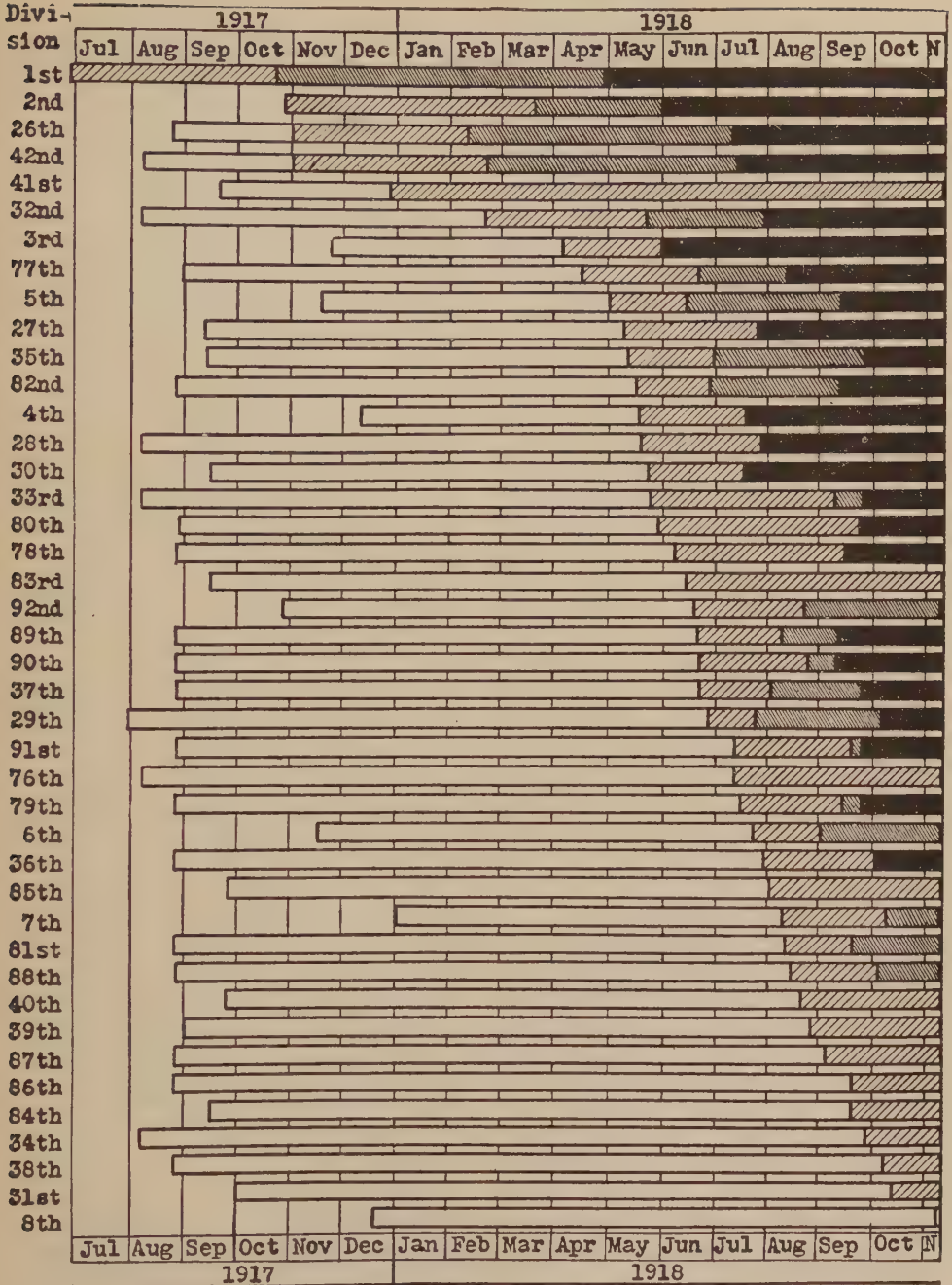
Third Division (Marne), organized at Camp Greene, Charlotte, N. C., Nov. 21, 1917; to France, April-May, 1918; in Château Villain Training Area; entered Château-Thierry sector in June; met Germans, July 15; attacked across the Marne, July 21, and advanced to the Ourcq; relieved July 29; St. Mihiel Sector, Sept. 10; relieved, Sept. 14; in the Argonne offensive, Sept. 30-Oct. 27; relieved north of Montfaucon; on right of the Third American Army, Nov. 14; marched to the Rhine; occupied the Kreis of Mayon.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Joseph T. Dickman, Nov. 28, 1917; Brig. Gen. James A. Irons, Feb. 27, 1918; Maj. Gen. Joseph T. Dickman, April 12; Maj. Gen. Beaumont B. Buck, August 31; Brig. Gen. Preston Brown, Oct. 17-Nov. 11.

Insignia: Three white stripes (representing the Marne, St. Mihiel and the Meuse-Argonne) on a blue ground.

Fourth Division, organized from units of the Regular Army at Camp Greene, N. C., Dec. 1917; arrived in France, May-June, 1918 (56 men of Companies A and B lost, when transport Moldavia torpedoed, May 23); infantry trained with the British in Samur area, artillery at Camp de Souge near Bordeaux; at disposal of French at Meaux in June; reserve between Soissons and Château-Thierry in Marne salient in German offensive of July 15; in Aisne-Marne offensive of July 18 and operations following; assigned to First American Corps, July 28; advanced to the Vesle (first operation as a division), August 3; (division not complete until Aug. 4-7); relieved, Aug. 11; removed for rest and training to Reynel, then to Vavincourt; engaged on line southeast of Verdun; relieved,

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 Organization to arrival in France
 Arrival in France to entering line
 Entering line to active battle service
 Service as active combat division

Diagram showing periods of organization, training and battle service of the Combat divisions of the A. E. F. in France.

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Sept. 19-20; moved to Lennes, west of the Meuse, then north; in the Meuse-Argonne offensive, Sept. 26-Oct. 19; relieved (except artillery and ammunition train); in reserve to Second Army, north of Toul, Oct. 20; reassigned to First Army in Meuse-Argonne operation, Nov. 6; recalled to Second Army after starting, Nov. 8; assigned to Army of Occupation; completed occupation of area (Cochem), Dec. 17; began return to the United States, July 1919.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. George H. Cameron, May 25, 1918; Brig. Gen. Benjamin A. Poore, Aug. 24; Maj. Gen. John L. Hines, Aug. 31; Maj. Gen. George H. Cameron, Oct. 12; Brig. Gen. Benjamin A. Poore, Oct. 25; Maj. Gen. Mark L. Hersey, Oct. 31.

Insignia: Green four-leaved ivy, about a circle, in cross shape, on a square olive-drab diamond.

Fifth Division, organized from units of the Regular Army and assignments from National Army, at Camp Logan, Texas, Dec. 1, 1917; arrived in France, March-June, 1918; infantry trained at Bar-sur-Aube, artillery at Valdahon; with 33rd French Army Corps in the Vosges, June 1; entered the line, June 14; transferred to St. Die sector, July 15; relieved, Aug. 26; transferred to vicinity of Lunéville, Aug. 28; entered line for St. Mihiel operation, Sept. 8; advanced, Sept. 12-17; stationed near Toul for rest and training, Sept. 17; moved to Souilly area, Oct. 3; engaged heavily in Meuse-Argonne offensive, Oct. 12-21; relieved, Oct. 22; re-entered line, southwest of Brioules, Oct. 27; crossed the Meuse, Nov. 2-4, and continued in pursuit of enemy; removed to Longuyon-Longwy area, as part of the Third Army (Army of Occupation), Nov. 22-23; assigned to garrisons in Rhenish Prussia (one regiment) and in southern Luxembourg; return to United States begun July 1919.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. John E. McMahon, April 9, 1918; Maj. Gen. Hauson E. Ely, Oct. 18.

Insignia: A red diamond.

Sixth Division (Star), organized from units of the Regular Army and assignments from the National Army, at Camp McClellan, Ala., Nov. 1917; to France, May-July, 1918 (some units landed first in England and Scotland); artillery, under aeroplane fire at Le Havre, suffered first casualties; infantry trained near Château Villain, artillery at Valdahon; in the Vosges, under French command, Aug. 27-Oct. 11 (minus artillery); started, Oct. 27, for Meuse-Argonne offensive; in line, Nov. 2; established headquarters at Stonne, Nov. 6; moved to sector northeast of Verdun; relieved, Nov. 21; returned to the United States, June 1919.

Commanding Generals: Brig. Gen. James B. Erwin, Nov. 1, 1917; Maj. Gen. Walter H. Gordon, Aug. 1, 1918.

Insignia: Six-pointed red star bearing a blue figure "6."

Seventh Division, organized at Chickamauga Park, Ga., Jan. 1, 1918; began training at Camp MacArthur, Waco, Texas, February 5; transferred to France, July-Sept.; trained in the 15th Training Area; moved to Toul Area at Gondreville, Sept. 30; relieved 90th Division, Oct. 10-11, in the Puvionelle sector; defensive

occupation of the sector, Oct. 10-Nov. 9; offensive occupation to Nov. 11; participated in the Second Army offensive; moved headquarters to Saizerais, Jan. 10, 1919. (The 7th Field Artillery Brigade, trained at Camp Meunon, did not join the division until February, 1919.)

Commanding Generals: Brig. Gen. C. H. Barth, Aug. 10, 1918, and Maj. Gen. Edmund Wittenmeyer, Oct. 24.

Insignia: Two triangles, with apexes touching, in black, on red circular base.

Eighth Division (Pathfinder), organized at Camp Fremont, Cal., Dec. 17, 1917; about 5000 men and nearly 100 officers transferred to Siberia, with Maj. Gen. William S. Graves, in Aug. 1918; command of the division passed to Maj. Gen. Eli A. Helmick, with recruits added; embarkation from Hoboken started, Oct. 30; some units reached France, but none saw action.

Insignia: A black Indian head with an orange circle.

Ninth Division, organized at Camp Sheridan, Ala. in July, 1918, with the 45th and 46th Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus and selective service men added; the Artillery Brigade organized at Camp McClellan, Ala., Aug. 1; a detachment ready for embarkation when the Armistice was announced; demobilization of temporary officer and National Army personnel from Nov. 1918 to Feb. 15, 1919.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Willard A. Holbrook.

Tenth Division, organized at Camp Funston, Kan., July-Aug., 1918, advanced school detachment left Camp Funston, Oct. 27, arriving in France just prior to Armistice; the 210th Engineer Regiment and train ready to move overseas on Nov. 11; demobilization of all organizations except those belonging to the Regular Army, took place, Jan. 18-Feb. 18, 1919.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Leonard Wood.

Insignia: A blue square with a yellow "X" inside a yellow ring.

Eleventh Division (Lafayette), organized at Camp Meade, Md., in Aug., 1918, with the 17th and 63rd Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus; the 24th Field Artillery, assigned to the division, trained at West Point, Ky.; advanced school detachment reached Liverpool, England, Nov. 8, and whole division was ready for transport overseas by Nov. 11. All organizations not belonging to the Regular Army demobilized, Nov. 29.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Jesse McI. Carter.

Insignia: Silhouette bust of Lafayette in blue, on a red disc.

Twelfth Division (Plymouth), organized at Camp Devens, Mass., in July, 1918; Artillery Brigade, organized and trained at Camp McClellan, Ala.; signing of the Armistice prevented embarkation; demobilization of the personnel not belonging to the Regular Army took place Jan. 18-31, 1919.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Henry P. McCain.

Insignia: A blue diamond with a red centre and the numerals "12" in white pierced by a bayonet.

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STATISTICS OF COMBAT DIVISIONS IN FRANCE

	No. of days in		Advance against enemy in Kilometers	Men captured and percentage of total	Battle deaths	Wounded
	Quiet Sectors	Active Sectors				
1st	127	93	51	6,469 (10.26%)	4,411	17,201
2nd	71	66	60	12,026 (19.07%)	4,478	17,752
3rd	0	86	41	2,240 (3.55%)	3,177	12,940
4th	7	38	24½	2,756 (4.37%)	2,611	9,893
5th	71	32	29	2,356 (3.74%)	1,976	6,864
6th	40	0	0	12 (.02%)	93	453
7th	31	2	1	69 (.11%)	296	1,397
26th	148	45	37	3,148 (4.99%)	2,135	11,325
27th	0	57	11	2,357 (3.74%)	1,785	7,201
28th	31	49	10	921 (1.46%)	2,551	11,429
29th	59	23	7	2,187 (3.47%)	951	4,268
30th	0	56	29½	3,848 (6.10%)	1,629	7,325
32nd	60	35	36	2,153 (3.41%)	2,915	10,477
33rd	32	27	36	3,987 (6.32%)	989	6,266
35th	92	5	12½	781 (1.24%)	1,067	6,216
36th	0	23	21	549 (.87%)	600	1,928
37th	50	11	30	1,495 (2.37%)	977	4,266
42nd	125	39	55	1,317 (2.09%)	2,644	11,275
77th	47	66	71½	750 (1.19%)	1,992	8,505
78th	17	21	21	432 (.68%)	1,384	5,861
79th	28	17	19½	1,077 (1.71%)	1,419	5,331
80th	1	17	38	1,813 (2.87%)	1,132	5,000
81st	31	0	5½	101 (.16%)	251	973
82nd	70	27	17	845 (1.34%)	1,298	6,248
88th	28	0	0	3	29	89
89th	55	28	48	5,061 (8.02%)	1,433	5,858
91st	15	14	34	2,412 (3.82%)	1,414	4,364
92nd	51	2	8	38 (.06%)	176	1,466

In General Pershing's Final Report the deaths in the A. E. F. to Sept. 1, 1919, are accounted for as follows: killed in action, 35,556; died of battle wounds, 15,130; (total battle deaths, 50,686); died of other wounds and injuries, 5,669; died of disease, 24,786; (total deaths, 81,141). A more inclusive report gives the total of deaths in the U. S. Army April 6, 1917 to Sept. 1, 1919, from all causes and in all places, as 116,492. The number of those wounded in action is placed at 205,690.

Thirteenth Division, organized at Camp Lewis, American Lake, Wash., after July 10, 1918; the personnel consisted of selective service men with the 1st and 44th Regular Army Infantry Regiments and some non-commissioned officers and enlisted men as a nucleus; ready for overseas service, Nov. 1; demobilization of the personnel not belonging to the regular organization, Jan.-March, 1919.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Joseph D. Leitch.

Insignia: On a disc of blue a red horseshoe with the opening to the top; in this opening a black cat and underneath the numerals "13."

Fourteenth Division (Wolverine), organized at Camp Custer, Mich., July 20, 1918; with the 10th and 40th Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus; Artillery Brigade organized, Aug. 10; the 214th Field Signal Battalion, organized at Fort Leavenworth, Kans., arrived July 25; the 214th Regiment of Engineers, organized at Camp Forrest, Ga., arrived, Oct. 31; demobilization of all units not belonging to the Regular Army took place, Jan. 27-Feb. 1919.

Commanders: Col. Samuel Burkhardt, Jr., July 28, 1918; Brig. Gen. H. L. Laubach, Sept. 5; Maj. Gen. Grote Hutcheson, Nov. 9.

Insignia: A yellow disc containing the head of a wolverine in black, on a green shield.

Fifteenth Division, organized at Camp Logan, Tex., Aug. 28, 1918, with the 43rd and

57th Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus; artillery organized at Camp Stanley, Tex., from National Army Cavalry, and the Engineer Regiment and Train, at Camp Humphreys, Va.; demobilization of all units not belonging to the Regular Army took place, Dec., 1918-Feb., 1919.

Commanders: Col. D. J. Baker, Aug. 28, 1918; Brig. Gen. Guy V. Henry, Sept. 11.

Insignia: A white rattlesnake.

Sixteenth Division, organized at Camp Kearney, Cal., Aug. 1918, with the 21st and 32nd Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus; Artillery Brigade organized, Sept. 13, 1918, and the Engineer Regiment, on Sept. 28, at Camp Humphreys, Va.; demobilization of all units not in the Regular Army, Feb.-March, 1919.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. David C. Shanks.

Seventeenth Division, organized at Camp Beauregard, Alexandria, La., Aug., 1918, with the 5th and 29th Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus; artillery brigade organized at Camp Bowie, Tex., and the engineer regiment, at Camp Humphreys, Va.; demobilization of all organizations not belonging to the Regular Army took place in Jan. 1919.

Commanders: Col. H. E. Jackson, Aug. 6, 1918; Col. James A. Irons, Sept. 1; Brig. Gen. Robert W. Mearns, Nov. 1; Maj. Gen. Henry C. Hodges, Jr., Jan. 8, 1919.

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Eighteenth Division, organized at Camp Travis, Tex., on Aug. 21, 1918, with the 19th and 35th Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus; Artillery Brigade organized at Camp Stanley, Tex., and the Engineer Regiment at Camp Humphreys, Va.; demobilization of all organizations except those belonging to the Regular Army, Jan. 17-Feb. 14, 1919.

Commanding General: Brig. Gen. G. H. Estes.

Insignia: The figure "18" on a green cactus plant, under which is written, *Noli me tangere*.

Nineteenth Division (Twilight), organized at Camp Dodge, Iowa, Sept. 1, 1918, with the 2nd and 14th Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus; Artillery Brigade organized at Camp Bowie, Tex., and later went to Fort Sill, Okla.; the Engineer Regiment organized at Camp Humphreys, Va.

Commanders: Col. W. C. Bennett, Sept. 1, 1918; Col. Armand I. Lasseigne, Sept. 26; Brig. Gen. Benjamin T. Simmons, Oct. 25.

Insignia: A black triangle with white tips on a red circle on khaki ground.

Twentieth Division, organized at Camp Sevier, S. C., Aug. 12, 1918, with the 48th and 50th Regular Army Infantry Regiments as a nucleus; Artillery Brigade organized at Camp Jackson, S. C. Demobilization of all organizations not belonging to the Regular Army, Jan. 17-Feb. 28, 1919.

Commanders: Col. Louis J. Van Schaick, Aug. 9, 1918; Col. Lawrence B. Simonds, Aug. 18; Col. William F. Grote, Aug. 27; Brig. Gen. F. Leroy Sweetser, Sept. 30.

NATIONAL GUARD DIVISIONS— 26 TO 42

Twenty-sixth Division (Yankee), organized in Boston, Mass., Aug. 22, 1917, from National Guard of New England, together with National Army troops from Camp Devens; to France (partly through English ports), Sept.-Oct.; established headquarters at Neufchâteau, Oct. 31; into line in Chemin des Dames sector, Feb. 6, 1918; relieved, March 18; entered La Reine, northwest of Toul, March 31; moved to area east of Meaux, June 28; marched to area northwest of Château-Thierry and took over the Pas Fini sector; advanced in Aisne-Marne offensive (2nd Battle of the Marne), June 18-25; marched to vicinity of La Ferté; moved to Châtillon training area, Aug. 1-3; moved *via* Bar-le-Duc area to Troyon sector where it entered line in St. Mihiel salient, Aug. 25-Sept. 12; attacked, Sept. 12; consolidated and occupied Troyon sector, Sept. 13-Oct. 7; moved as Army Reserve to vicinity of Verdun; engaged in operations there, Oct. 18-Nov. 11; proceeded to 8th Training area; established headquarters at Montigny-le-Roi, Nov. 23.

Commanders: Brig. Gen. Peter E. Traub, Oct. 31, 1917; Maj. Gen. Clarence R. Edwards, Nov. 11; Brig. Gen. Frank E. Bamford, Oct. 24, 1918.

Insignia: A blue monogram "Y D" on a diamond of khaki.

Twenty-seventh Division, organized at Camp Wadsworth, S. C., in Sept. 1917, with the New York National Guard as its nucleus; was transported to France via Newport News, Va.,

May-July, 1918; after training, it entered the line with British units opposite Mt. Kemmel; occupied Dickebusch sector, Belgium, Aug. 20; part of front line in attack on Vierstaadt Ridge, Aug. 31; in action near Bony, Sept. 24-Oct. 1; entered line in the St. Soupiet sector and crossed Selle River in attack on the Jonc de Mer Ridge. *Commanding General:* Maj. Gen. John F. O'Ryan.

Insignia: A black circle with a red border in which are the letters "N Y D" in monogram, surrounded by the stars of the constellation Orion.

Twenty-eighth Division (Keystone), organized at Camp Hancock, Ga., from Pennsylvania National Guard, in August, 1917, and reorganized, Nov. 15; to France, via Camp Upton, April-May, 1918; after training with the British near Nîelles les Bléquin and with the French at Gonesse, moved to a sector near the Marne; after some units had seen action at Hill 204 and on the Marne front, the entire division entered a sector on the Ourcq River, July 27; rested near Jaulgonne, July 31-Aug. 6; engaged in line on Vesle River, Aug. 7-Sept. 8; relieved and moved to position south of the Argonne Forest; advanced in the offensive of Sept. 26; relieved, Oct. 9, and moved to area near Commercy; held a sector near Thiaucourt, Oct. 16-Nov. 11.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. C. M. Clement, to Dec. 11, 1917; Maj. Gen. Charles H. Muir, Dec. 15, 1917; Maj. Gen. William H. Hay, Oct. 24, 1918.

Insignia: A red keystone.

Twenty-ninth Division, (Blue and Gray), organized at Camp McClellan, Ala., July 1917, from National Guard of the District of Columbia, N. J., Del., Md. and Va. (later, Delaware troops were withdrawn and organized into pioneer infantry units); overseas, June-July, 1918; after training, moved to Haute Alsace, where it occupied the centre sector, Aug. 10-Sept. 23; further training near Belfort; assigned to American First Army for Meuse-Argonne; placed in reserve of the 17th French Corps; advanced in the Grand Montagne sector, north of Verdun, Sept. 26-Oct. 30; stationed, after the Armistice, at Bourbonne-les-Bains; returned to the United States, May 1919.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Charles G. Morton.

Insignia: A circle bisected by two half circles, reversed and joined (Korean symbol of good luck), one-half of circle blue, other gray.

Thirtieth Division (Old Hickory), organized at Camp Sevier, S. C., in Oct., 1917, from old 9th National Guard Division (Tenn. and North and South Carolina), augmented by selective service men from these states and from Ind., Ill., Ia., Minn. and N. D.; transferred overseas, May-June, 1918; in Belgium with the British; took over Canal sector near Ypres, Aug. 17; engaged in battle before Mt. Kemmel, Aug. 31-Sept. 1; in reserve until Sept. 17; entered Beauraivov sector with British, Sept. 22; participated in battle of Bellicourt, Sept. 29-30; advanced on line near Montbrechain, Oct. 4-8; took part in battle of La Selle River, Oct. 17-20; the Artillery, not present for operations with the Division, was active in the Toul Sector, St. Mihiel offensive, Meuse-Argonne offensive and the Woëvre sector.

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Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. John F. Morrison, Oct. 1917; Maj. Gen. C. P. Townsley, Nov. 20-Dec. 17; Maj. Gen. George W. Read, Apr. 27, 1918; Maj. Gen. Edward M. Lewis, Aug. 10.

Insignia: On a maroon background a monogram in blue, letters "O" and "H" ("Old Hickory," the nickname of Andrew Jackson), Roman numerals "XXX" on cross bar of the H.

Thirty-first Division (Dixie), organized at Camp Wheeler, Ga., Oct. 1, 1917, from National Guard of Ga., Ala. and Fla. augmented by National Army drafts from Ill. and Mich.; transferred to France, Sept.-Nov. 1918; designated as a replacement division; sent to Le Mans area.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Francis J. Kernan, Aug. 25, 1917; Brig. Gen. John L. Hayden, Sept. 18; Maj. Gen. Francis H. French, March 15, 1918; Maj. Gen. Le Roy S. Lyon, May 15.

Insignia: The letters "DD" back to back, in red on a khaki shield.

Thirty-second Division, organized at Camp McArthur, Tex., July-Sept. 1917; National Guard from Mich., and Wis.; to France, Feb.-March, 1918 (15 men lost when the Tuscania carrying the 107th Sanitary Train was torpedoed, Feb. 5); designated as replacement division, with headquarters at Prauthey, Haute Marne, Feb. 24; changed to a combat unit and moved into a sector in Alsace; on the Ourcq in the Aisne-Marne offensive, July 30; advanced, driving enemy back north of the Vesle; northeast of Soissons, with the French, Aug. 28; helped outflank Germans on Chemin-des-Dames, capturing strong position on Juvigny plateau; relieved, Sept. 2, and sent to Joinville for rest; to Meuse-Argonne front, Sept. 20; entered front line before the Kriemhilde Stellung near Romagne-sous-Montfaucon, Sept. 30; continued attacking for three weeks; relieved, Oct. 20; entered line at Dun-sur-Meuse bridgehead, Nov. 6; attacked east of the Meuse, Nov. 10; part of Third Army; occupied a sector in the Coblenz bridgehead; returned to the United States, May, 1919.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. James Parker, Aug. 26; Maj. Gen. William G. Haan.

Insignia: A flying red arrow with a red cross bar in the middle.

Thirty-third Division (Prairie), organized at Camp Logan, Houston, Tex., Aug. 1917, with Ill. National Guard as a nucleus; to France, via Camp Merritt, N. J., May-June, 1918; sent to Huppy area, near Abbéville, then to the entraining area; trained under the British in Amiens sector, participating in small operations; to area of the First American Army, Toul sector, Aug. 23; in region of Tronville-en-Barrois, Aug. 26; sent to Verdun, Sept. 5; relieved the 120th French Division; pivot of the 3rd American Corps in Meuse-Argonne, Sept. 26-Oct. 6; operated with French 17th Army Corps east of the Meuse; relieved and moved to Troyon-sur-Meuse sector on St. Mihiel front; relieved 79th Division, Oct. 23, 24 and 25; engaged in several minor operations; established in Luxembourg, Dec. 1918-Apr. 1919; returned to the United States in May. The Artillery Brigade served other divisions and the 33rd Division was supported by other artillery throughout.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. George Bell, Jr., Aug. 16, 1917.

Insignia: A yellow cross on a black circle.

Thirty-fourth Division (Sandstorm), organized at Camp Cody, N. M., Oct. 1917; National Guard from Minn., Ia., Neb., North and South Dakota; overseas, Sept.-Oct. 1918; ordered to Le Mans area; was broken up; began return to the United States by individual units in December.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. A. P. Blocksom, Sept. 18, 1917-May 7, 1918; Maj. Gen. William R. Smith, Sept. 28-Oct. 10; Maj. Gen. Beaumont B. Buck, Oct. 17-Nov. 7; Brig. Gen. John A. Johnson, Nov. 7-Nov. 11.

Insignia: A black oval encircling a red bovine skull.

Thirty-fifth Division, organized at Camp Doniphan, Fort Sill, Okla., Sept. 1917; National Guard of Mo. and Kans.; to France (via England) Apr.-May 1918; trained with the British in the Eu and the Arches areas; into trenches in the Vosges region; moved to St. Mihiel sector and acted as army reserve there; relieved a French division in Grange le Compte sector; took part in Meuse-Argonne offensive (in Vauquois sector), Sept. 26-Oct. 1; took over Sommedieu sector, Oct. 12; to training area near Commercy, Nov. 9.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. W. M. Wright, Aug. 25, 1917; Brig. Gen. N. F. McClure, June 15, 1918; Maj. Gen. Peter M. Traub.

Insignia: The Santa Fe Cross.

Thirty-sixth Division (Lone Star or Panther), organized at Camp Bowie, Tex., Aug. 25-Oct. 15, 1917, officers and men largely from Tex. and Okla.; to France via Camp Mills, L. I., and Hoboken, July-Aug. 1918; Champagne area, Sept. 27; in operations of the 4th French Army, advancing to Aisne River, Oct. 6-28; rest area.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. E. St. John Greble, and Maj. Gen. W. R. Smith.

Insignia: Light blue Indian arrow head on a round khaki patch with a khaki "T."

Thirty-seventh Division (Buckeye), organized at Camp Sheridan, Montgomery, Ala., Aug.-Oct. 1917, with Ohio National Guard as a nucleus; overseas, June-July, 1918; trained in the Bourmont area; in Vosges Mountains, Aug. 4, for training under 6th French Corps; entered the Argonne drive at Avocourt Sept. 20; relieved, after advance to Cierges, Oct. 1; sent to hold portion of line in St. Mihiel sector; moved to Belgium, Oct. 18; attached to French Army, 30th Corps, Oct. 22; relieved, after advance across the Escaut (Scheldt) River, Nov. 4-5; rested at Thielt; re-entered lines along Escaut River (headquarters, Syngem) with 34th French Corps, Nov. 8; forced crossing of the river, Nov. 10-11; advance to Dickele and Hindelgem, morning of Nov. 11. The Artillery never served its own division, but was active with several other units.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Charles G. Treat, to Apr. 24, 1918; Maj. Gen. Charles S. Farnsworth, May 8 until return to the United States.

Insignia: A red circle with a white border.

Thirty-eighth Division (Cyclone), organized at Camp Shelby, Miss., Aug. 1917; National Guard from Ky., W. Va., and Ind.; arrived in France, Oct. 1918, and ordered to the Le Mans

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area; broken up, and returned to the United States in December.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. William H. Sage; Brig. Gen. Edward M. Lewis; Brig. Gen. Henry H. Whitney; Brig. Gen. William V. Judson.

Insignia: A shield, the right half blue, the left half red, "CY" in monogram, superimposed.

Thirty-ninth Division, organized at Camp Beauregard, La., in Sept. 1917; National Guard from La., Miss., and Ark.; overseas, July-Sept. 1918; ordered to the St. Florent area (sur Cher) and designated as the 5th Depot Division; in training for replacement work; the training cadres, transferred to St. Aignan (1st Depot Division) Nov. 1; skeletonized Division returned to United States, Dec. 1918-Jan. 1919.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Henry C. Hodges.

Insignia: A bull's eye on a khaki square, the inner circle red; the middle white; the outer one black.

The Fortieth Division (Sunshine), organized at Camp Kearney, Cal., Sept. 1917; National Guard from Cal., Nev., Utah, Colo., Ariz. and N. M.; to France, Aug. 1918; ordered to La Guerche (Cher) as a replacement division; became 6th Depot Division; personnel used as replacements for combat divisions.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Frederick S. Strong.

Insignia: A golden sun on a blue circle.

The Forty-first Division (Sunset), organized at Camp Greene, N. C., Sept. 1917; National Guard of Wash., Ore., Mont., Idaho and Wyo.; to France, Oct.-Dec. 1917; as 1st Depot Division, ordered to St. Aignan training area; broken up into training cadres for replacement work; 66th Artillery Brigade, intact, attached to 1st Corps, July 1, 1918, continued to serve as Corps and Army Artillery, active in Marne-Aisne, St. Mihiel and Meuse-Argonne offensives.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Hunter Liggett, Aug. 16, 1917; Brig. Gen. Henry Jervey, Sept. 19, 1917; Brig. Gen. George L. R. Irwin, Dec. 6; Brig. Gen. Richard Coulter, Jan. 23; Brig. Gen. Robert Alexander, Feb. 14; Brig. Gen. William S. Scott, Aug. 10; Maj. Gen. John E. McMahon, Oct. 24; Brig. Gen. Eli Cole, Nov. 7.

Insignia: Setting sun in gold on red background, over blue stripe.

Forty-second Division (Rainbow), organized Aug. 1917, and completely assembled at Camp Mills, Sept. 13; National Guard units from every part of the United States; overseas, Oct.-Dec. 1917; after several transfers, trained near Lunéville, serving in line with French units, beginning Feb. 16, 1918; in Baccarat sector, March 23; relieved, June 21, and moved to Camp de Châlons; thrown into line as reserve in sectors of Souain and Experance; withdrawn, July 18; took over front of 1st U. S. Army Corps near Épiéds, July 25; advanced until relieved, Aug. 3; intensive training in Bourmont area; moved to St. Mihiel salient; attacked from the south; relieved, Oct. 1; moved to Bois de Montfaucon, Oct. 6, as reserve of 5th Army Corps; in the Meuse-Argonne, Oct. 13; relieved, Oct. 31; returned, Nov. 1, and advanced to the Meuse and

heights south of Sedan; part of Army of Occupation (headquarters at Ahrweiler, Germany).

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. William A. Mann, Sept. 1917; Maj. Gen. Charles T. Menoher, Dec. 14; Maj. Gen. Charles D. Rhodes, Nov. 7, 1918.

Insignia: Rainbow on a field of black.

NATIONAL ARMY DIVISIONS— 76 TO 100

Seventy-sixth Division (Liberty Bell), organized at Camp Devens, Mass., Sept. 1917; men from Maine, N. H., R. I., and Conn.; transferred overseas, July, 1918; sent as a depot division to the St. Aignan area; broken up into training cadres and used for replacements, special units sent forward as corps and army troops.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. H. F. Hodges, Aug. 25, 1917; Brig. Gen. William Weigel, Nov. 27; Maj. Gen. F. H. Hodges, Feb. 13, 1918.

Insignia: A blue liberty bell on a khaki square.

Seventy-seventh Division (Metropolitan), organized at Camp Upton, Aug. 30, 1917; officers from New York City and men from New York City and Long Island, N. Y. (to fill vacancies caused by transfers to Camp Greenwood, others came from Camp Devens, Mass., and Northern New York); overseas, after March 28, 1918; trained with British near St. Omer (artillery brigade trained at Souges); moved to Baccarat sector, June 16 (artillery brigade relieved French artillery there, July 12); near Fismes in Vesle sector, Aug. 4; entered line, Aug. 11; attacked north of Vesle River, as part of 6th French Army, Aug. 18; crossed the Vesle, Sept. 5; took place in Argonne trenches, Sept. 21-25; attacked on left of First American Army, Sept. 25, in Argonne Forest; was relieved Oct. 15-16 and concentrated east of Cornay; returned, Oct. 25, and continued attacking until Nov. 11, advancing from St. Juvin to the Meuse.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. J. Franklin Bell, Aug. 18, 1917; Maj. Gen. George B. Duncan, May 18, 1918; Brig. Gen. Evan M. Johnson, Aug. 24; Maj. Gen. Robert Alexander, Aug. 31.

Insignia: A gold Statue of Liberty on a truncated triangle of flag blue.

Seventy-eighth Division (Lightning), organized Aug. 1917, at Camp Dix, N. J. (majority of the officers from New York State, men from N. Y., N. J. and Del.); overseas, May-June, 1918; infantry trained behind Hazebrouck front in British area, June 17-July 19, then east of St. Pol until Aug. 19; moved to Bourbonne-les-Bains area; moved to St. Mihiel front, Aug. 31-Sept. 10; relieved 2nd and 5th Divisions, Sept. 15-16 (artillery brigade supporting 90th Division); occupied Limey sector until Oct. 4; relieved and rejoined by artillery brigade; moved to Argonne Forest; relieved 77th Division, Oct. 16; in line until Nov. 5; moved back (minus artillery brigade and ammunition train), Nov. 6, to west of Varennes, then to Florent, Les Islettes, and south of St. Meneshould; entrained from Semur Training Area, Nov. 15.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Chase W. Kennedy, Aug. 23, 1917; Maj. Gen. Hugh L.

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Scott, Dec. 28; Brig. Gen. James T. Dean, March 16, 1918; Maj. Gen. James H. McRae, April 20.

Insignia: A red semi-circle with lightning flash in white.

Seventy-ninth Division (Liberty), organized Aug. 1917, at Camp Meade, Md. (most of the officers from Penn.; earlier increments of selected men from Penn., Md. and District of Columbia); later increments from N. Y., Ohio, R. I. and W. Va.; transferred overseas, July-Aug., 1918; trained in 12th and 10th Training Areas; moved to Robert-Espagne area; in Montfaucon sector, Sept. 16; first offensive, in Meuse-Argonne drive, advancing until Sept. 30, when relieved; passed to command of 2nd Colonial French Corps; moved to Troyon sector, Oct. 8; relieved, Oct. 26, entered Grand Montagne sector; took part in second phase of Meuse-Argonne offensive, advancing until Nov. 11; remained and took over area from the Meuse to Fresnes-en-Woevre until Nov. 26; moved to Souilly area, south of Verdun, Dec. 27.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Joseph E. Kuhn, Aug. 25, 1917 to Nov. 11, 1918.

Insignia: A gray Lorraine cross on a blue shield outlined in gray.

Eightieth Division (Blue Ridge), organized at Camp Lee, Va., Aug. 27, 1917; officers from N. J., Md. and Va.; men from Western Penn., Va., and W. Va.; overseas, May-June, 1918; moved into Third British Army sector July 5-Aug. 18; after further training moved to Stainville, Sept. 1, and later to Tronville area as reserve during St. Mihiel operation; one infantry regiment and one machine gun battalion served with the French; commencing Sept. 14, moved into the Argonne and, Sept. 26-29, attacked at Bethincourt; Oct. 4-12, advanced near Ouisy; after relief and re-equipment advanced from the line St. Georges-St. Juvin, Nov. 1-6; returned to the United States.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Adelbert Cronkhite.

Insignia: A shield outlined in white on a khaki background with three blue mountains superimposed.

Eighty-first Division organized at Camp Jackson, S. C., in Sept. 1917, of National Army drafts from N. C., S. C., and Fla.; overseas, July-Aug. 1918; after training moved to Vosges where it held the line (mid. Aug.-Oct. 19) as part of the 33rd French Corps; assigned to the American First Army and attached to the 2nd Colonial Corps (French) as reserve in the Sommedieue sector; relieved the 35th Division, Nov. 6; Nov. 9 attacked German positions in the Woevre plain; after Armistice at Châtillon-sur-Seine; returned to the United States, May 1919.

Commanding Generals: Brig. Gen. Chas. H. Barth, Aug. 25, 1917; Maj. Gen. Chas. J. Bailey, Oct. 8, 1917-Nov. 11, 1918.

Insignia: Silhouette of a wildcat on khaki circle. Color of wildcat varies.

Eighty-second Division (All-American), organized at Camp Gordon, Ga., Aug. 25, 1917; majority of officers were from Ga., Ala. and Fla.; men from Ga., Ala. and Tenn. Oct. 10, majority of enlisted men transferred to other divisions, and men from every state in the Union sent from Camps Devens, Upton, Dix, Meade and Lee;

overseas, April-May, 1918; after training entered the Toul sector with a French division, June 17-July 18; occupied sector alone, July 18-Aug. 9; took over Marbach sector astride the Moselle, Aug. 19-Sept. 21; transferred to Thiaucourt area, entered Meuse-Argonne offensive north of Varennes, Oct. 6-30; withdrawn into training areas; after Armistice stationed at Prauthoy; returned to the United States, April, 1919.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Eben Swift, Aug. 25, 1917; Brig. Gen. William P. Burnham, May 1918; Maj. Gen. George B. Duncan, Oct. 10; Maj. Gen. William P. Burnham, Oct. 24; Maj. Gen. George B. Duncan, Nov. 7-Nov. 11, 1918.

Insignia: Letters "AA" in gold on circle of blue, superimposed on red square.

The Eighty-third Division, organized at Camp Sherman, Ohio, Sept. 1917; drafted men from Ohio and W. Va.; overseas, June, 1918; in Le Mans area, broken up; artillery brigade and special units sent forward as corps and army troops; others, replacements for combat divisions. Returned to the United States, Jan. 1919.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Edwin F. Glenn.

Insignia: A black triangle on which is golden monogram "O. H. I. O."

Eighty-fourth Division (Lincoln), organized at Camp Taylor, Ky., Sept. 1917; men from Ind. and Ky.; overseas, Aug. 1918. In the Le Mans area, broken up; cadres formed for training personnel as replacements for combat divisions; returned to United States, Jan. 1919.

Commanding Generals: Brig. Gen. Wilbert E. Wilder, Aug. 25; Maj. Gen. Harry O. Hale, Oct. 6, 1917 to Nov. 11, 1918.

Insignia: A white disc, surrounded by red circle, on which is "Lincoln 84" in blue and an axe with red head and blue handle.

Eighty-fifth Division (Custer), organized at Camp Custer, Mich., in Oct. 1917, men from Mich., and Wis.; overseas, July-Aug. 1918; designated as a Depot Division; ordered to Pouilly; broken up; special units sent forward as corps and army troops, and the infantry used as replacements to the combat divisions.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. J. T. Dickman, Aug. 17, 1917; Brig. Gen. S. W. Miller, Nov. 24; Maj. Gen. James Parker, Dec. 13; Brig. Gen. Benjamin C. Morse, Feb. 21, 1918; Maj. Gen. C. W. Kennedy, Feb. 27-Nov. 11.

Insignia: Khaki circle on which are the letters "CD" in red.

Eighty-sixth Division (Black Hawk), organized at Camp Grant, Ill., Sept. 1917; men from Ill.; transferred overseas, Sept.-Oct. 1918; in the Le Mans area broken up and cadres formed for training replacements for combat divisions.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Thomas H. Barry, Aug. 25, 1917; Brig. Gen. L. W. V. Kennon, March 14, 1918; Maj. Gen. Charles H. Martin, April 18-Nov. 11, 1918.

Insignia: A black hawk with monogram "BH" on red shield.

Eighty-seventh Division (Acorn), organized at Camp Pike, Ark., Sept. 1917; men from Ark., La., and Miss.; overseas, Aug.-Sept. 1918; turned over to the Service of Supply; ordered to Pons; broken up; units placed on various

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work in intermediate section; cadres of the division returned to the United States, Dec. 1918.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Samuel D. Sturgis, Aug. 26, 1917; Brig. Gen. Robert C. Van Vliet, Nov. 27; Maj. Gen. Samuel D. Sturgis, March 10-Nov. 11, 1918.

Insignia: Brown acorn on green circle.

Eighty-eighth Division, organized at Camp Dodge, Ia., Sept. 1917; men from N. D., S. D., Minn., Neb., Ia. and Ill.; overseas, Aug.-Sept. 1918; after training, Sept. 14, placed under 4th French Army; Sept. 23, relieved the 38th French Division in centre sector (Haute Alsace); Nov. 2, placed under 4th American Corps and moved to Lagney area as part of 2nd American Reserve. After Armistice, stationed at Gondrecourt; returned to United States, Jan. 1919.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Edward H. Plummer, Aug. 25, 1917; Brig. Gen. R. N. Getty, Nov. 26; Maj. Gen. Edward H. Plummer, Feb. 19, 1918; Brig. Gen. R. N. Getty, Mar. 15; Brig. Gen. William D. Beach, May 24; Maj. Gen. William Weigel, Sept. 28; Brig. Gen. William D. Beach, Oct. 24; Maj. Gen. William Weigel, Nov. 7-Nov. 11, 1918.

Insignia: Two figure "8's" crossed at right angles.

Eighty-ninth Division (Middle West), organized at Camp Funston, Kan., Sept. 1917; men mainly from Kan., Mo., and Colo.; moved to Camp Mills, L. I., May 1918; to France, June-July, 1918 and after training moved to Toul front, Aug. 5; Sept. 12, participated in St. Mihiel offensive as right division of 4th American Corps, advanced 21 kilometres, capturing Beney, Essey, Bouillonville, Pannes and Xammes; relieved, Oct. 7, sent to Recicourt area as part of 1st Army Reserve; Oct. 12, moved forward in rear of 32nd Division of 5th American Corps in Argonne offensive; Oct. 20 in line along Sommerance-Romagne road; attacked Nov. 1-11; part of Third Army in Germany; consigned area bounded by Kreise of Prum, Bitburg, Trier, and Saarburg, headquarters at Kyllburg; returned to United States, May 1919.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Leonard Wood, Aug. 27, 1917; Brig. Gen. Frank L. Winn, Nov. 26; Maj. Gen. Wood, Apr. 12, 1918; Brig. Gen. Frank L. Winn, May 24; Maj. Gen. William M. Wright, Sept. 14; Maj. Gen. Frank L. Winn, Oct. 24.

Insignia: A black "W" in a black circle.

Ninetieth Division (Alamo), organized Aug. 25, 1917, at Camp Travis, Tex.; men from Tex. and Okla.; sent away great numbers to fill up Regular and National Guard divisions and to form army corps and S. O. S. troops; filled up with men from other camps; overseas, June, 1918; majority went first to England; after training in France took part in St. Mihiel operation, and in Meuse-Argonne; was under fire from Aug. 20-Nov. 11 with exception of 7 days; was 75 days without relief; after Armistice formed part of Army of Occupation, occupying the Kreise of Daun, Wittlick and Berncastel.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Henry T. Allen.

Insignia: Red monogram, letters "T" "O."

Ninety-first Division (Wild West), organized at Camp Lewis, Wash., Aug. 25, 1917;

majority of officers from Cal., Wash., and Ore., men from Cal., Ore., Wash., Utah, Idaho, Nev., Mont., and Alaska; overseas, June-July 1918; part of reserves in St. Mihiel offensive; Meuse-Argonne offensive, Sept. 26-Oct. 6, advancing from west of Avocourt to north of Gesnes; Oct. 19 passed to command of the King of Belgium; Oct. 31-Nov. 11 under direction of French Army in Belgium took part in Lys-Scheldt offensive; Nov. 22, detachment participated in ceremony of entrance into City of Brussels of King and Queen of Belgium; after Armistice, in Le Mans area; returned to United States, March-April, 1919.

Commanding Generals: Maj. Gen. Harry A. Greene, Aug. 25, 1917; Brig. Gen. James A. Irons, Nov. 24; Brig. Gen. Fred S. Foltz, Dec. 23; Maj. Gen. Harry A. Greene, March 2, 1918; Brig. Gen. Fred S. Foltz, June 19; Maj. Gen. William H. Johnston, Aug. 31-Nov. 11.

Insignia: A green fir tree.

Ninety-second Division (Buffaloes), organized Oct. 29, at Camps Funston, Grant, Dodge, Upton, Meade and Dix, of officers and men from all parts of the United States; transferred overseas, June 1918; after training, went into line at St. Die in quiet Vosges sector, Aug. 29-Sept. 20; from Sept. 25-30 in reserve of 1st Army Corps in Argonne-Meuse sector; from Sept. 24-30, 368th Infantry brigaded with 11th Cuirassiers under command of 38th Army Corps (French), as liaison detachments between French and Americans. In line, in Marbache sector, Oct. 9-Nov. 15.

Commanding Generals: Brig. Gen. Charles C. Ballou, Oct. 30; Brig. Gen. John E. McMahon, Nov. 23; Maj. Gen. Charles C. Ballou, Dec. 3; Brig. Gen. James B. Erwin, Jan. 12, 1918; Maj. Gen. Charles C. Ballou, March 12-Nov. 11, 1918.

Insignia: A buffalo in black circle on khaki patch.

Ninety-third (colored) **Division**, organized at Camp Stuart, Newport News, Va., in Jan. 1918, but not to full strength, only 185th and 186th Infantry Brigades being formed; transferred overseas, April 1918; broken up and brigaded with French; served in different parts of the line; returned to the United States, Feb. 1919.

Insignia: French helmet in blue on a black disc.

Ninety-fifth Division organization begun at Camp Sherman, Ohio, Sept. 1918. Artillery brigade and ammunition train to be organized at Camp Taylor, Ky.; demobilized in December.

Commanding General: Brig. Gen. M. C. Smith.

Ninety-sixth Division, organization begun at Camp Wadsworth, Sept. 1918, not completed; at Armistice, strength, under 3,000 men.

Commanding General: Maj. Gen. Guy Carleton.

Ninety-seventh Division, organized at Camp Cody, Deming, N. M.; men mainly from Okla. and Minn. At Armistice strength of entire division under 9,000 men.

Commanding Officers: Col. C. A. Martin, Sept. 26, 1918; Brig. Gen. James R. Lindsay, Oct. 19, 1918.

Ninety-eighth and Ninety-ninth Divisions existed in name only.

Hundredth Division was never completely organized.

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